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DEVELOPMENTS IN THE RUSSIAN SOCIAL PROGRAMME

A Summary based on a report issued by the Commission on Social Questions of the League of Nations.*

"In order to manage successfully, in addition to being able to convince, and in addition to being able to conquer in Civil War, it is necessary to be able to organize. This is the most difficult task, because it is a matter of organizing in a new way the most profound economic foundations of life of tens of millions of people. And it is the most grateful task, because only after it is fulfilled in its main and fundamental outlines will it be possible to say that Russia has become not only a soviet but also a socialist republic".

LENIN

IN A country, covering an area comprising a sixth of the earth's land surface and containing within its borders some two hundred millions of people, representing numerous national groups, Russia had a maximum of uncoordinated problems with which to contend following the Revolution of 1917. Almost overnight a traditional class distinction had ceased to exist. Whether for good or ill, the forces which had controlled the actions of "all the Russians," were annihilated, leaving as raw material to be moulded into some new form of civilization a tremendous population united only by a common hatred of the tyranny they had endured. Unaccustomed as many of them were to thinking or reasoning for themselves, sufficient time had necessarily to elapse before the majority of the population could grasp the Marxian principles on which this new mode of life was being built.

Civil War, starvation and disease contributed to the chaos of the next ten years, and it was not until 1928 that the "matter of organizing" was sufficiently well advanced to emerge as a plan. To the Soviet government, the purpose of planning has been the

* C.P.E./C.1/No. 9. Publication of the Social Questions Commission, League of Nations—translation from *Investia*, June 28, 1936.

development of "social equality," by establishing communities in which every person able to do so is expected to repay to the community the cost of his upbringing and to contribute as his faculties permit for the benefit of all. As part of the plan, he is in turn to be assured of his share, according to his needs, in the production of the common wealth.

Collectivization of agriculture was one of the primary steps taken, with the establishment of state and collective farms (sovhozes and kolhozes). Industrialization was projected also, not only to increase the production of wealth but also to the end that no important national minority would be dependent for livelihood on one phase of agriculture alone. Another objective was the possibility of raising the standard of the peasantry and particularly of the children to membership in an educated community, capable of understanding those principles underlying communism upon the practice of which the new social system was planned.

Health

Health was regarded as a primary factor in the plan as essential in keeping the worker able-bodied and so able to contribute to the production of wealth. Consequently a comprehensive service organization was developed to care for all ages and conditions of the population. Contrary to the practice in most other countries and possibly due to the late development of general medical services, there is an absence of the historic distinction between preventive and curative medicine, and all measures to preserve and restore health are considered functions of the Peoples' Commissariat of Health. Dr. Semashko, the first Peoples' Commissar of Health for the U.S.S.R., has outlined as distinguishing characteristics of soviet medicine the following points :

Unity in the organization of the health services, i.e. centralized control;

The participation of the population itself in the entire work of health protection;

A prophylactic tendency, through educational efforts, to overcome unhealthy conditions. e.g. trachoma, syphilis.

The first Five Year Plan, formulated in 1928 was deemed to have attained its objective in 1932 at the end of four and a quarter years, and in 1933 a second plan was initiated after some appraisal of activities in the meantime. Changes have been made in some phases of the social programme, and copies of the new dispositions as decided on by the Central Executive Committee of the Council of Peoples' Commissars were issued in the summer of 1936.

New Regulations in Family Life

Soviet legislation following on the Revolution of 1917 accepted the principle that restrictions placed upon Russian women under existing law and usage through the ties of marriage and domestic duties were intolerable and left no opportunity for study, work or participation in the life of the community. In consequence, one of the first measures enacted sought to make woman man's equal in every economic respect, and was designed to relieve her of the burdens of the care of the house and of the family by providing public services to assume a division of the responsibility for the rearing of children which had hitherto been hers alone. The new laws permitted her equal freedom with man in contracting marriage; the right to separation if and as she wished, possession in common of their belongings and equal responsibility in supporting dependents. One factor likely to complicate such a programme was the possibility of continuous childbearing, and it was felt that unless this problem were met, women would seek to maintain their new status of complete freedom, and limit their families by any means possible.

Abortion

Because the practice of abortion had previously been illegal, and usually carried out under dangerous and irregular circumstances by inexperienced and untrained people, the Soviet programme, in an endeavour to meet the situation it anticipated, legalized abortion under certain stipulations. The operation was not to be performed later than the third month in pregnancy, and must be done by a doctor in a hospital or maternity home. Any-one not medically qualified, or performing such an operation for mercenary gain, was rendered subject to trial by the Peoples' Court. These measures created an open and what was considered a more controllable situation, with the result that the majority of women applied to hospitals for operation, and there was a decrease in the number of incomplete abortions and a sharp decline in the prevalence of related after-birth ailments. At the same time these measures were described as temporary and as opposed in principle by the Peoples' Commissariat of Health, who regarded abortion as an operation adversely affecting health and sought to prevent it by disseminating birth control information through women's consultation bureaux, the development of maternal and infancy protection institutions, and general health education emphasizing its dangers.

It is noticeable that, in the recently published decrees, this is the phase of the Revolutionary programme that has been most

radically changed. The Council of Peoples' Commissars, having decided that the practice of abortion is injurious has now forbidden it altogether except where continued pregnancy threatens the life or health of the mother, or where there is evidence of serious hereditary disease. Anyone inducing a woman to procure an abortion, and the doctor effecting it are both rendered liable to imprisonment for one to two years, the severity of the penalty increasing to not less than three years if it is found that the abortion was procured under unhygienic conditions or by a person without special training.

Divorce and Alimony

With the emphasis placed by Soviet principles upon the equal status of men and women, marriage is held to be a relationship in which both husband and wife have equal rights. If both parties desire it, the marriage is registered in the Bureau of Registration of Civil Acts, (the Z.A.G.S.), but even without registration there is recognition of such a union which thereby legally abolishes the distinctions between legitimate and illegitimate children. This, it was felt, would affect a certain proportion of abortions.

During the operation of the first five year plan little or no restriction was placed on the granting of divorce, an application from one of the parties concerned being deemed sufficient procedure for granting a separation, of which the other party thereupon received notification.

In the intervening years there has apparently been reason to question the effect of so complete a lack of restriction on the unity of the family group, and the present decrees modify the laws previously in force. In order to secure a divorce, both parties involved are now required to appear at the Registry office, where a fee is paid for the hearing, (50 roubles for the first divorce, 150 roubles for the second, and 300 roubles for subsequent divorces.) If the divorce is granted, an entry to that effect is made on the applicants' passports. However, the liability for maintenance of the children is likely to operate as a deterrent on speedy or frequent divorces.

The term alimony in Russian usage is not restricted in meaning, as in English, to the payment of an allowance to a wife, but is applied to the money paid for any dependent members of the family, and may include wife, husband, children or parents. Ordinarily, a wife does not receive payment for herself for more than a year unless after that time she is unable to work because of disabilities for which her husband is considered responsible.

The maintenance of a child until he is eighteen is the parents' obligation, and concerns both equally. After a divorce, the husband

or father continues to be responsible for half the support of his children for this period, including payment to the woman for a coming child if she is pregnant at the time of the divorce. In the original code the scale of payment was not to exceed 30 percent of the father's earnings, and in each case the actual sum was determined according to the financial status of father and mother. The State is considered the ultimate guardian of the child, and decisions regarding parental rights are made according to the interest of the children exclusively. Any change of work or increase in the earnings of a person paying alimony is required to be reported, evasion being penalized by 6 months' imprisonment or a fine of 300 roubles.

In the recent legislation this scale of payment has been changed from a maximum of thirty percent to one quarter of the defendant's wages for the maintenance of one child, one third for the maintenance of two and one half for the maintenance of three or more.

For men and women, members of collective farms, payment is calculated in "work days." Where the woman is receiving alimony from a father who works on the same or on another farm, the share of "work days" according to the number of children is computed and transferred to her account. The penalty for evasion now involves a maximum penalty of two years' imprisonment with costs payable by the person who has refused to pay alimony.

Maternal and Infant Hygiene

The importance in a communistic state of inculcating ideals and ideas in the growing generations that will make for their understanding of its philosophy and tend to further its development is self-evident, and so to surrender control over the actions and attitude of the young would be suicidal. For that reason in the U.S.S.R. the State assumes direct responsibility for the child from conception until he is eighteen years of age. Child bearing has ceased to be regarded as only an individual or personal matter and the provision of benefits, educational and child care facilities for the protection of mother and child, are centrally administered not in any way as an act of charity, but as a "function of citizenship".

Maternal Aid to Women in Childbirth

Woman in the U.S.S.R. is participating in all types of work, both manual and mental, and receiving equal payment for the same work as man. In order that she may be able to retain her position as a worker on this basis, certain provisions have been arranged to protect her during the childbearing period. *Laws for the protection of women's labour:* In the earlier code the woman

doing physical labour was released from work at full pay for eight weeks before and eight weeks after confinement and, with occasional exceptions, the woman engaged in a mental profession was allowed twelve weeks furlough.

In the 1936 decrees, this latter condition has been abolished and women officials now enjoy the same term of release as working women, *i.e.* eight weeks before and after confinement.

The rationalization of women's labour is described as its adaptation to the conditions and requirements of the female constitution and the privileges under the law are designed to make it easier for the mother to bring up her child, and at the same time increase her economic independence. In the code it was originally stated that a woman might not be discharged during maternity leave, and that neither expectant nor nursing mothers were permitted to work overtime. In addition, an expectant mother from the fifth month of pregnancy might not be sent out of town on official business without her free consent, and any nursing mother was entitled to a half hour period every three and a half hours, to be counted as part of her working time, for the purpose of nursing her child. In the 1936 legislation it is made a penal offence to refuse to employ a woman on account of pregnancy or for the same reason to reduce her pay. The law requires that an expectant mother shall receive pay as usual, the amount being based on her previous six months' earnings, and that she shall be assigned to less strenuous work.

State Assistance

The State Social Insurance scheme participated in by large numbers of people requires no contribution from the workers themselves. A total aggregate wage fund from the industries concerned is divided, according to the workers' vote, into personal and social wages. (The average insurance reserve is 12.5 to 13 percent of the total wages paid.) The latter division provides a State Social Insurance fund from which benefits are paid for sickness, medical treatment, maternity,—and from which in addition funds may be assigned for various community improvements.

In the legislation enacted in 1936 it is provided that mothers having six children shall receive each year for five years a State grant of 2000 roubles for each subsequent child. Mothers with ten children shall receive a single grant of 5000 roubles at the birth of each subsequent child and an annual grant of 3000 roubles for the succeeding four years, these conditions applying for mothers with a corresponding number of children at the time of the enactment of the measure.

Extension of Maternity Homes

Under the old regime when women as a group received little consideration, those who worked in or near villages particularly were entirely dependent on untrained midwives for confinement service with, as might be expected, a correspondingly high maternal mortality rate. With the organization of a centrally controlled health programme steps were taken to establish maternity homes in town and country in conjunction with a system of consultation bureaux for women, providing prenatal and postnatal care for the protection of mother and infant. At the same time an opportunity was given the woman attending to participate in planning for the protection of the working woman's health.

In the villages midwifery stations are maintained to carry on educational work and for the purpose of recording prenatal cases, following them up after confinement, making arrangements about hospital accommodation at confinement and concluding necessary transfers to lighter work.

In 1914 there were in the area corresponding to that of the U.S.S.R. 4,709 cots for lying-in women. Since then accommodation has been increased to 18,620 in the cities (1933), and 4,200 beds are to be added in 1936. A new goal has again been set this year, with 11,000 new beds to be provided by January 1st, 1939, 2000 in 1936, 4000 in 1937 and 5000 in 1938, serving towns and industrial and district centres.

In rural districts there were in 1933 12,710 beds to which 32,000 are to be added by 1939. Sixteen thousand of these will be for maternity sections of village hospitals, financed out of the State Budget, and 16,000 will be paid for through the collective farm organization for maternity homes, 75 percent of the cost being met by the farm workers and 25 percent from the State Budget.

Even with this considerable increase in accommodation, however, the needs of so vast an area cannot be met adequately by the services provided in centres. For those women living away from the vicinity of maternity homes, 14,400 new midwifery centres are to be organized, 4070 in 1936, 7000 in 1937 and 8700 in 1938.

Extension of the Network of Crèches

Closely linked with maternal care is the programme for infant protection, each unit being directed by an independent department under the Peoples' Commissar of Health. The mother, while in hospital with her new born child, is given instruction in the care of herself and her baby, and at the time of her discharge is referred to a consultant in infant care and advised to visit him. The

consultant is also given the mother's name, and if she fails to call on him refers her to a visiting nurse, ("a patronage sister").

At the close of the mother's eight weeks maternity leave following confinement, she is expected to be ready to return to work. To assist in providing for the children and to free her for her own activities, there is a widely developed system of crèches. They are of several types, functioning in some cases 7 hours a day, in others 10 or 11 hours, as well as day and night crèches where children may stay for several successive days, and travelling crèches for the service of nursing mothers on the farms.

All economic establishments are stimulated by the government to appreciate their responsibility in providing creche facilities and are required by law to furnish financial support. All enterprises until this year made allotments equal to one quarter percent of their funds of workers' wages, and trade unions give ten percent of their funds for the improvement of workers' life conditions toward organization and maintenance.

Because the function of the crèche, which cares for the child up to four years of age, is primarily the freeing of woman from obligations that would interfere with her work, the system is made as flexible as possible. It is stated that service is given to the mother in industry who is nursing her baby, and to the mother on a collective farm who can ill afford the time to go back and forth from fields to house, to help them, and not as a plan of separating child and family.

Starting with fourteen crèches in pre-revolutionary days the system has spread until there are now tens of thousands in operation. Still greater expansion is contemplated, and the numbers are to be doubled by 1939, providing accommodation for 400,000 children in towns and villages. In rural districts the number of cots is to be doubled also, to increase the number of beds in permanent crèches by 500,000 and in summer crèches by 4,000,000.

To provide for sufficient staff to carry out this tremendous undertaking the Peoples' Commissars of Health are to make a supplementary provision of 15,000,000 roubles for the training of assistant medical staff, and the work of the centres from January 1937 is to be carried on in two sixteen hour shifts a day. Supplementing the work of the crèches will be the 800 "milk kitchens" to be constructed in the same three year period to serve 1,500,000 children up to three years of age. They are planned as well equipped nutrition stations, connected also with the children's consultation services and prepared to make up both usual and special diets for children under four years of age.

Preschool Education

Up to the present the institution for the child of four years and upward has been under the control of the Commissariat of Peoples' Education, with the medico-sanitary part of the programme the responsibility of the Commissariat of Health. That arrangement has been altered in the 1936 legislation and the kindergartens for children of workers and officials of economic institutions are to be placed under the management of those institutions, excepting where the undertakings are small with no kindergarten of their own. The responsibility for administration will rest with the undertaking to which the kindergarten belongs, although the Peoples' Commissars of Education will continue to be responsible for the educational programme.

Extension of the Network of Kindergartens

Through the application of mass teaching by means of competitions, regional campaigns, etc., it has been possible to extend the preschool system and to enlist the working population in community endeavour for the improvement of preschool education.

The existing preschool institutions are classified as:

Kindergartens without boarders; kindergartens with boarding sections; children's rooms attached to clubs; children's rooms attached to rooms for adults, (mothers' study); children's playgrounds; and children's homes for orphaned preschool children.

In all an effort to establish correlation between school and home is made. The 1936 decrees in connection with kindergarten expansion provide that under the Peoples' Commissars of Education and the Executive Committees of the regions, provinces and districts, the number of kindergartens shall be trebled by January 1st 1939 to provide accommodation for 2,100,000 children. In the same time those in villages and on farms are to be enlarged to accommodate 300,000 as compared with the present 130,000 and on collective farms to care for 700,000 in addition to the present 400,000, while summer playgrounds for all collective farm children will by 1939 be capable of accommodating 10,700,000 children.

To make it possible to organize so large a number of special institutions 50,000 teachers are to be trained by the second half of 1936, for which purpose the Commissariat of Education is setting aside a supplementary allowance of 35,000,000 roubles.

Financing the Measures

In relating a financial plan to the rest of the Soviet programme various resources are assigned to each district out of both local and state budgets, the latter usually for institutions of more than

local importance, health resorts, institutes, etc. Money received through contributions from the social insurance funds may comprise more than half the health service appropriation in industrial regions, and sickness insurance funds are turned over to be incorporated in the general financial plan. Social insurance funds provide large amounts for crèches, housing, etc.

Considerable sums of money will inevitably be required for the development and expansion projected for 1936-39. The one thousand four hundred and eighty-one million roubles which have already been appropriated for 1936 will be used for maternity beds, midwifery centres, crèches, "milk kitchens," and kindergartens, and an additional sum of 692.8 million roubles is to be used for the construction and the extension of these institutions, bringing the total for 1936 to 2774.1 million as compared with 875 million roubles in 1935. (For provision of centres, 596 million roubles; working expenses, 46.8 million; training of staff, 50 million; maternity treatment for women, 70.5 million).

The compulsory contributions made by undertakings and institutions for the upkeep of kindergartens and crèches at the rate of one quarter percent of the Wages Fund have been replaced by a direct appropriation from the State Budget of three hundred million roubles, with corresponding adjustments made in the financial programmes of the organizations and of the State Insurance Budget.

F. Y.

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PRIVATE SOCIAL WORK—WHAT IT HAS TO OFFER FOR COMMUNITY ENRICHMENT*

F. N. STAPLEFORD

THE great expansion of welfare work under public auspices in recent years has raised the question in many minds as to what was the future of private social work, if indeed it had any future. The number of workers in the public field has increased enormously and with great rapidity. Of course sometimes they decrease just as rapidly, as has happened in Ontario. However, the trend towards public work has been pronounced and it raises the question "What is there left? Cannot it all be done now under public auspices?" Some people said a couple of years ago, "Well why should not it all be done by the community as a whole. It distributes the cost over the whole population, and after all, it is every body's responsibility." So it looked as if private social work was to be bowed off the stage.

However, that was two years ago. There is a great deal more of public understanding now than then. The need for welfare work under public auspices is recognized just as fully, but also, some of its limitations are seen a great deal more clearly. The situation has emerged in clearer outline, so that we can see that far from this closing the door of opportunity to private effort in reality it has just opened it.

Private social work is just now entering its most constructive stage. Owing to the fact that a good deal of money-consuming and time-consuming work which private agencies formerly had to do is now being done under public auspices, this has meant that there has been a great release of energy for truly constructive work. It is seen that there is a job for private philanthropy to do, vital to the community, which will not get done in any other way. Private agencies could never have found the money necessary to carry the burden that the public departments have carried during the last six years, but it is also true that the public departments would have been quite lost on the trail without the guidance and experience which the private agencies had built up.

The two are in no sense competitive. They support and supplement each other's efforts and should be, and are in most communities, firm allies in carrying forward the battle against want, despair and the collapse of morals. The public agency devotes itself to the material relief of persons in need. The necessities of life are provided from public sources, and should be so provided. But is that all that is necessary? Does that finish the job? If so,

* An address to several regional welfare conferences under the auspices of The Canadian Welfare Council and Community Welfare Agencies, Autumn, 1936.

private agencies can pack up and get out. "But is not life more than meat", is not the emotional life of man, his fears and despairs which register so powerfully in private and public action—are they not just as important as the providing of food, clothing and shelter.

Relief Not Main Function of Private Agency

The private agency which is aware of its own function no longer considers relief its main purpose. It may use relief, but only as a tool of treatment, as a means to helping in the achievement of the real purpose for which the agency now exists. That purpose is to assist the individual in the solving of environmental and personal problems. It deals with relationships and with the emotional life of the individual. Dependency is much more a habit of mind than a physical condition, and it is with those that the workers of private agencies are concerned. The private agency, therefore, is not concerned with families whose needs can be met through the provision of relief. It deals with families whose problems have gone further, where there are acute marital difficulties threatening to disintegrate the family, or where emotional uncertainty threatens the collapse of morale. That does not mean that it gives no relief. Relief is needed for families who are not eligible for public relief and there are supplementary forms of relief of the kind not given through public sources. Private agencies need money for relief, but the point I am making is that their emphasis should not be at this particular point. Their relief giving function is important, but the main job is the kind of service which they give the community.

What is the Essential Service of the Private Agency?

What can the private agency do to help the community? Sometimes, of course, we cannot live up to expectations. People expect more than we can deliver. A little while ago the switchboard at our office received a telephone call, and an urgent voice on the wire said, "There is a dead horse outside of our house, I wish you would come and get it."

My own connection is particularly with family work, and therefore my discussion will be largely from that viewpoint. It is necessary to remember, however, that the success of private and public is acute all the way down the line. As far as the family work goes in Toronto we have largely adjusted this relationship, but the problem has come up again in other fields. It is really a problem that runs through the whole area of social work and has to be thought out in relation to every field. What has the private

organization to offer in the way of a service which cannot be as well done, or will not get done at all if left to a public department?

Pioneering New Ways of Helping

Mr. Swift of the Family Welfare Association of America has drawn attention to the fact that a public department necessarily represents the whole people, and is necessarily an expression of the general viewpoint in regard to the amount of responsibility which should be assumed and the way in which the work should be done. The private agency on the other hand does not have to convince the whole public as to the merit of the work it is doing. It has a smaller selected public. It has therefore a freedom of action which is not possible to a public body. It can try new methods and experiments on a small scale. For the most part what a public department does is necessarily made available to everyone on the same terms. It lacks this power of experimentation or has it only in a very guarded way. Therefore it is no accident, nor is it any reflection on the ability of people in public work that most of the new ideas and the things which make for progress in social work have in the past come from the private field. This is not entirely true, of course. Workers in the public field have made great contributions, but by and large I think it is true that if the private agencies of all kinds were to shut up shop (a proposition which is really unthinkable under present conditions) you would behead the social work movement.

Voluntary Service—An Educational Force

What a progressive element lies in the great body of those who are giving voluntary service through the private agency,—numbers of boards, committees of various kinds, and those doing everything from giving motor service to visiting in the home. This volunteer service is invaluable. It is an utter mistake to think that the adoption of modern social work principles squeezes out the volunteer. It has not done so in Toronto. On the contrary far more volunteers than ever before are now at work, and they have a status and feeling in regard to the importance of their work which perhaps did not exist before. This great group of volunteers are directly in touch with the needs of the people. They see and feel most keenly the need for progressive legislation which will meet these needs. They are the group which rake up and support these proposals. Through their circles of friends they discuss the situation with which they are dealing, and have an influence in the community which it is hard to over estimate. There is a great deal of work in any community which if volunteers do not do simply

cannot get done. It is impossible to secure funds sufficient to pay staff to meet all these varied needs. You might say, "That is very true, but volunteers can work for public agencies just as well as for private". That may also be true, but the cold fact is that they don't. There are, of course, volunteers in public agencies, but the system is frequently such as not to encourage them. It is more difficult to fit them in. The volunteer does not feel at home and they cannot feel that they have any direct influence on policy. It is under private auspices that the volunteer finds his or her best field of work and is most at home.

Holding The Fort

There are many forms of work which have not yet been accepted by the public because they are not understood by the public, and are being carried on under private auspices until public understanding more fully arrives. As we saw before the public department has to have a general body behind it favorable to its work. There are many things now being done under private auspices which would wither and die if transferred to the public department, simply because there is not enough general and public support behind them, and yet those things are absolutely necessary and vital, and will be perhaps in the future woven into a public department programme.

Interpretation of Social Needs

It is the private agency which has the task to a large extent of interpreting social work to the public. Sometimes I admit it makes a bad job of this, and does not go at it with nearly the determination which this demands, but a great deal of interpretation does leak out through the private agency, even through the ones that are stupidly shutting their eyes to this phase of their work. They have more contacts with the public. They are able to express themselves more freely. A public welfare official is not permitted to criticise, or make suggestions which would imply criticism of existing conditions, if the policy of the City or Provincial Government is in any way involved. Public officials usually develop a good deal of caution in regard to public statements, and this seems to be a necessary handicap in their work. Of course, this does not mean that public welfare workers have to be absolutely dumb in the face of new possibilities and needs, but it does mean that in this process of interpreting to the public the growing and developing needs of the community that public officials have a much greater handicap than have the private agency workers.

Enriching Life

There is now a great need for the development of cultural and recreational opportunities, not merely to make life possible, but to make life interesting. Life is dull and flat to many people, and it need not be so. We are at the beginning of a great movement now which will encourage the development of more interests in life, more forms of expression, perhaps the development of some hobby, anything which will prevent the stagnation of life's currents and give them a free outlet. This is clearly one of the needs of present day life. The public agency will have its part to play in this, but no one could deny for a moment that the private agency has a tremendous part to play in experimenting and developing along these lines. There must be new avenues of beauty as an escape for tortured souls. David Adie in an address in Toronto several years ago speaking on this point said that Saint Francis of Assisi gave up everything in life except his heart. What sort of an individual could be satisfied with a life that provides food, clothing and shelter? The life that is distinctively human just begins there. Pearl Buck in her most recent book "The Exile" gives a most sympathetic description of her mother, who is the Exile, and who is called Carie in the book. Her father, the Andrew of the book, is not so sympathetically portrayed, and she writes of him with a pen dipped in bitterness. After a life filled to the brim with love and effort, the mother lies dying: "Then with one of her sudden changes she said, 'You were speaking of dancing. Now do you know, I have always wanted to see a fox trot: I've read about them. Could you do one for me?' This was the scene we came upon then, to the tune of a ragged bit of jazz on the victrola. Here was Carie propped up on her pillows, the image of death except for her eyes, which all dimmed as they were in sight, somehow maintained yet their old fire and flash, watching with vivid delight this white, whirling figure of the nurse. At the end of the dance when the nurse dropped breathless into a chair Carie remarked with the air of a connoisseur. 'Well, that's a pretty thing—so graceful and light. I should not be surprised if Andrew is all wrong about God. I believe one ought to choose the happy, bright things of life, like dancing and laughter and beauty. I think if I had it to do over again I would choose these instead of thinking them sinful. Who knows?—God might like them'. Once she said, half dreaming, 'I have had after all so many of the good things of life. I have had little children at my breast, I have had good earth to garden in, ruffled curtains blowing in at my window, hills to look at, and valleys and sky, books and my music—and people to do for. I've had a lot of good in my life'."

Developing Knowledge and Skills

And I want to emphasize most strongly this point. The private agency is the vehicle largely through which casework skill in the handling of human difficulties has in the past, and will in the future, be developed.

The contribution to community well-being made by the private agency is, then, in the development of the particular kind of skills and knowledge necessary to the solution of these human problems. The leadership of the private agency in this field is vitally necessary. Education, and the whole development in the standards of life are making a generation much more sensitive, much more imaginative and (for this goes with it) much more emotionally unstable.

When a large part of the population, as was true a hundred years ago, were largely ignorant, with unawakened imaginations, they did not enter into life to feel and know its subtleties, but they were also spared some of the mental agonies which afflict many people to-day. With the development of human life people feel more intensely, their capacity for happiness goes up, but also their capacity for despair. The development of psychiatry has come about partly as an answer to this situation. Social case work has also a great contribution to make from the preventative side in helping people to find solutions for their emotional problems, and thus heading off these later, more morbid and serious developments. Social case work, of course, also deals with people whose problems are more objective, who are in a set of circumstances the significance of which they cannot understand. They do not realise the richness of community life which is open to them, and the resources which the community affords for their help. The social case worker must have a working knowledge of her community and be able to interpret to the individual its possibilities.

Social case work is essentially an educational process, but it is a one by one, case by case process—not a group process of education. With the development of social life this process of stimulating the individual and helping him to develop his best capabilities will become increasingly necessary. There are people now in our midst who are felt to be community problems who would have been passed without comment a generation ago. In the interval conditions have become more demanding and as this goes on, and it will go on unless there is a corresponding process of helping the individuals to meet these increasing demands, there will be an ever larger number of inadequate people who cannot meet modern conditions and who stand bewildered in a world they do not understand. The cost is great in terms of personal happiness of the individuals concerned, but there is also the cost which must

be thought of in terms of the community. A good sound case worker who knows her business will save to the community many times over what she may cost, in the increased effectiveness and the ability to adapt in those with whom she is dealing.

The solving of these personal problems has to go hand in hand with the solution of the economic problems. The idea that if you make economic conditions right everything else automatically follows is one of those half-truths, the fallacy of which should be obvious. Many problems indeed are linked with dependency. Poverty is the fruitful mother of many other difficulties, but it just isn't true that the provision of work at a good rate of wages automatically smoothes out all difficulties of this kind. The acceptance of this idea is only possible to those who shut their eyes to what is going on in the circle of their own acquaintances and friends. Social case work, which had its genesis and development in private social work, and will receive in the years ahead its greatest development in that field, will not be confined as a method of use only among those in the lower economic levels. It is already being used by many psychiatrists and doctors and is launching into the community something which will make for greater happiness.

Case Work A Study of Personal Problems

The uplifting conception of great causes and noble efforts can be the common lot, and not confined to the specially favored few. There is a tremendous lot of unhappiness in the world—unhappiness caused because we blunder along in our social and family relationships, not knowing the kind of thing which will bring happiness to them and to ourselves. Case work is a study of these personal problems and their relationship. An experienced and sensible case worker, observing and analyzing situations of this kind, can help to interpret to the individual the conditions of their own life, and why they are going astray in their search for satisfaction and happiness. A case worker can also help to drain away the bottled-up discontents and resentments, which a personality closed in and inhibited always feels.

Even as case work is practised to-day, it has a tremendous value to the individual, and through the individual, to society. Case work is, however, just in its initial stages. The case work of the future is going to make very much higher demands upon the case worker, demands in regard to education and personal calibre, in training and experience. The private agency will be judged, not so much by the quantity of its output, or the breadth of the field which it will cover, but the quality of the work which it is able to do—and this swings entirely upon the calibre of its personnel.

Has Much To Learn From Social Science

Social case work has hardly begun to absorb and digest the contribution which the social sciences have to offer to its practices. There have been developments in psychology, psychiatry, and other social sciences, but this information, has, as yet, hardly been put in a usable form. A worker may be told that economics is all important in the understanding of industrial conditions to-day, and may secure a book on economics, and wander about in some discussion on the theory of value—wondering what in the world that has to do with the problem of Mrs. Smith, whom she will have to meet at nine o'clock tomorrow morning!

In the years just ahead bridges will be built across. The information will be made usable, and the case worker of the future will be a much more informed and understanding person than is possible to-day, and that means that troubled individuals with personality problems beyond their own powers of solution will be able to get a quality of service and of guidance, which we cannot give them now because we do not know the clue. It is true that social case work is vastly more understanding now than it was fifteen or twenty years ago, that the solutions to many problems are found which would have been passed by as insoluble, or not seen at all, just a few years ago. But that process must continue, and private social work has an overwhelmingly important function to perform in this.

May I again emphasize that only intelligent and well trained people can do the job now being demanded in social case work. The investigator type of social worker will more and more drop out of the picture. Social workers, who would have been considered quite adequate fifteen years ago, are barely able to get by now, and will have no place in the picture at all ten years hence.

There are those who seem to feel that this sort of an effort will squeeze all human feeling out of social work and make it something cold and scientific. Nothing could be more utterly untrue than that. Case work is an effort to understand.

Over the week-end I was reading Mrs. Peterson's "The Street of the Sandal Makers", and ran into a phrase which intrigued me, "Without being really aware of it he was longing for a person without maxims or vast wisdom, but only that wisdom of the heart that confers the capacity for silence and kindly sympathy". The social case worker certainly can do without the maxims, but he must have the wisdom and understanding, and he most certainly must have that capacity for silent and kindly sympathy. Without this he would indeed be lost.

I heard a sermon some time ago in which the preacher said that the real meaning of the word "Charity" was "Consideration" or "Gentleness". I do not know whether the preacher's exegesis was correct or not, but I do know that modern social work, far from destroying that spirit, has developed it. We are far more apt to get impatient with people, to treat them with a routine, when we are dealing with them in the mass. Case work insists on dealing with each one as an individual whose problems are different from that of any other individual and who looks out upon life with different eyes than any other. When we really know the inner life of people, that certainly does develop the gentle touch. We realize how difficult the way has been and how sore the heart is and we realize the truth of Leo Tolstoy's passionate declaration, "You can handle things without love, but never human beings".

THE SOCIAL AGENCY AND THE HEALTH NEEDS OF THE CLIENT*

LEILA O'GORMAN

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I do not believe that ten years ago I would have been asked to speak on this subject—"The Social Agency and the Health Needs of the Client"—or that I, as a Family Agency Worker, and not a nurse or a doctor, would have been expected to possess more than a general, vague idea of the health needs of my agency's clients.

Social Workers have always sympathized with the sick and the physically and mentally handicapped. They have always realized the importance of preventive and curative health work, but there was in the past a tendency to be satisfied with the mere reporting of the more obvious symptoms of ill health observed, to the Public Health Nurse or the clinic and to leave the working out of a cure with the health workers.

Social Workers are convinced to-day that their efforts to help the individual make a happier adjustment to his environment, their work to save a family from disintegration, their attempts to reclaim the boy or girl from the path that leads to delinquency and crime, all are doomed to almost certain failure unless they deal with the individual as a whole person, and develop an awareness of all his needs, spiritual, intellectual, physical and social. The social worker cannot isolate one problem, perhaps unemployment or domestic discord, for attention and ignore other difficulties which may be either first causes of the trouble or complications

*An address to the Regional Welfare Conference for Western Ontario, London, Sept. 1936.

arising from the situation. All human needs, including health needs, are intensified in the homes known to social agencies.

About 1925, during a brief period of industrial depression, a family required help because the father was unemployed. The municipality provided food and a private family agency gave some help with rent, clothing, etc. Outside of the economic need there seemed to be no problem. The father had good work references, he tried every resource for employment. The parents and the children were devoted to one another and there was excellent household management. The social worker concentrated on what appeared to be the solution, the finding of a job for the man, and finally succeeded in putting him in touch with a contractor who offered work which promised to be steady. Everyone was delighted, but soon there was a cloud in the sky. The contractor sent word to the social worker that the man was reported to be loafing on the job, had been off half a day, and the foreman wanted to discharge him. The worker went to see the client that evening and was satisfied with his explanation. He admitted that he was finding the work heavy and was obliged to rest occasionally but blamed this on the fact that he had not been having proper nourishment as he had let the children (there were six of them) have almost all the food. He had also developed a cold. He did not wish to give up the work and knew he would be fine as soon as he received his first pay. An order of food was sent to supplement the regular supplies. But this man drew only one pay as he was taken to the hospital with pneumonia and within two weeks was dead. When the doctors reported that his bad physical condition had made his chances of recovery poor from the beginning, the worker remembered, what she had not consciously noticed before, his thin, slightly stooped figure, his hollow cheeks.

During the six months this man was out of work he should have had a physical examination and possibly treatment, at least nourishing food. It is probable that it was because of his physical condition that he was unemployed. Awareness of the health needs in this case might have saved a father's life. The economic loss of this untimely death may be computed in dollars and cents, but the loss in human happiness, affection, guidance and protection to his wife and young children can never be estimated.

What Are Health Needs?

What are the health needs of our clients and how do they differ from the needs of other individuals?

In common with the rest of the community, families, children, men and women known to social agencies require the protection

of the most common forms of public health measures, for the prevention and control of communicable disease and epidemics, for the provision of sanitation systems, and of pure water, milk and food.

In common with the rest of the community they need broader and more intensified education in health preservation. Dr. Mustard states in "Introduction to Public Health"—"There is a wide gap between the available knowledge in medicine and hygiene on the one hand and its practical application on the other." Of vital importance to human betterment have been the discoveries made by science in the realm of nutrition alone, but in how many homes are these discoveries ignored because of ignorance, prejudice or indifference.

A Visiting Homemaker who was looking after a family during the mother's illness reported to a Family Agency which had had some slight contact with the home that although the father was steadily employed at a good wage there was not enough food in the house to prepare lunch or supper. A small emergency order was sent and the social worker was at the house when the father came in at six o'clock, bringing some sausages with him. He was surprised that the Homemaker had found any lack of food. His family never ate vegetables, eggs, etc., which he considered "just a habit".

In another home known to a Family Agency, the mother was dead, the income was small and a young girl was keeping house. Three times a day the family, including the very young children, and the father for his lunch, had bread, jam and plenty of strong, sweet tea. On Sunday when the father was at home they usually had meat and pastry. They used twelve pounds of sugar a week, but only one pint of milk daily and no vegetables or fresh fruit. Patient and co-operative efforts of the social worker, the dietician and the health nurse, combined with some supplementing of the income, resulted in the adoption of a wholesome diet by this family, but not before the father suffered a serious illness and the eldest boy at sixteen required a complete set of dentures.

Health education, carried on unceasingly in the school, the clinic, parent education, classes, the press, by pamphlets, lectures and radio and through the close personal contacts of the health nurse and the social worker in the home, can cut down the bills for hospitalization and promote physical vigour and mental hygiene.

Public Health measures for mass protection and education for the maintenance of the health of all the people are obviously beyond the scope of individual effort. But what are the further

individual health needs of the clients of social agencies, and how are these to be met?

In 1907, Dr. Edward T. Devine wrote: "I wish to emphasize the fact that many people are out of health and enduring the misery resulting therefrom as best they can merely because from lack of income they are living in overcrowded quarters or taking in lodgers, or sending wife and children to work, or living without sufficient nourishment or recreation and without prompt and efficient attention to their physical ailments."

Splendid advances have been made in medicine and hygiene during the past twenty-seven years since these words were written, but how slowly economic conditions improve! Many more families to-day than at that time, because of lack of income, are living in overcrowded quarters, are undernourished, and have not the ability to pay for prompt and efficient attention to their physical ailments.

Society Must Furnish Means of Maintaining To Less Privileged

Since Society fails to give the individual the opportunity to provide for his own health needs, it is necessary for Society, as represented by the state or the voluntary organization, to furnish him with the means of maintaining health, of securing its return, or of relieving the suffering connected with ill health.

To maintain health there must be provided, in some way which will not destroy the spirit of independence of the individual, sufficient nourishing food, comfortable clothing, a shelter allowance which assures at least minimum standards of housing, with a sufficient number of rooms, fresh air, cleanliness, warmth in winter, cooking facilities and adequate household equipment, also opportunities for rest from overwork and for recreation and some assurance of security.

When illness comes to those who cannot pay for treatment they should be encouraged to apply for medical advice promptly and there should be available for them without removal from their own homes, except for special reasons, efficient medical care, the services of the visiting nurse if necessary and the diagnostic and treatment facilities of the hospital out-patient department. Medicine and surgical supplies should be provided.

The poor should be able to secure the services of a dentist, as well as of a physician or surgeon, and not only extractions but replacements by artificial dentures and treatment to preserve teeth should be available. There should be some source from which glasses, orthopedic and surgical appliances could be secured promptly when ordered by a competent authority. It has always

seemed inconsistent that a municipality will pay for weeks and weeks of hospital care, will make possible operation by skilled surgeons, expensive X-ray and laboratory tests, but draw the line at comparatively inexpensive appliances prescribed to complete the treatment or to prevent further illness. We can only conclude that glasses and artificial dentures are looked upon as luxuries, perhaps aids to beauty rather than as aids to health.

The provision of hospitalization facilities, including accommodation in sanatoria for treatment of tuberculosis, in hospitals and institutions for the care of patients suffering with mental disease or deficiency, as well as in general hospitals, has long been recognized as a public responsibility, although the accommodation has not always been adequate. The convalescent home is a valuable supplement to the hospital in some cases.

Maternal Deaths Not Abstract Figures To Social Worker

A form of health need which makes a special appeal to the imagination of the public and which the social worker would put in the first rank of health service is the maternal welfare plan, which must include pre-natal advice and supervision, medical and nursing care at the time of confinement and post-natal supervision. It is with this form of health work that we identify the visiting nurses association, although we know it has other important functions. An adequate maternal service, intelligently used, with expectant mothers referred early in pregnancy, can do much to reduce the maternal death rate and to preserve the health of our most valuable class of citizens.

To the social worker statistics regarding maternal deaths are not just abstract figures. They bring to her mind pictures of the many motherless homes she knows so well, . . . Mr. A—— trying to bring up his boy and girl in a rooming house, hoping the landlady will keep an eye of them if he is not at home when they come in from school; the F.—— children scattered amongst various relatives, some of whom care little for them; the little S.—— girls in a boarding home, with their father paying something for them, but visiting them less frequently than at first; Mr. Y.—— and his five small sons for whom the worker has been fortunate in securing a kind and efficient housekeeper, but there there is no assurance of her remaining permanently, of Rosie X.——, aged seventeen, who after two years of housekeeping for her father and young brothers and sisters, is becoming tired of the burden and where it is difficult to make the father understand a young girl's limitations as a homemaker and her natural longings for some of the normal pleasures of youth.

The value of any service which saves the lives and health of mothers, whether through maternal care or attention during other illnesses, can be appreciated fully only by those who are in frequent contact with the wistful children who lack a mother's love and devotion.

In many communities standards of infant care have reached a high level. There is much literature on the subject, there are well-baby clinics, and besides the infant is the special responsibility of the health nurse. Gratifying reductions have been made in the infant mortality rate and in the occurrence of such diseases as dysentery, rickets, scurvy and other ailments which formerly threatened the lives of babies. But in many communities there is not sufficient attention paid to the health and development of the slightly older child, of pre-school age. It is during the years between infancy and school age, when the health authorities again become interested, that many physical defects and some faulty habits and mental attitudes develop and are left untreated. Pre-school clinics may be the solution, but in any case some means must be found to build up the health of the pre-school child, to prevent and remedy such disabilities as deafness, defective eyes and teeth, diseased tonsils, rheumatism and cardiac disease so that he will be well equipped to withstand the new sources of infection and the nervous strain incident to the change to school life.

Cooperation Between Social and Health Agencies Essential

There is one further point that I wish to emphasize and that is the value to the client or the patient of active and intelligent co-operation between the social agency and the health agency. The health worker and the social worker should each be familiar with the function and work of the other's agency and with its limitations. By working together they can secure good results many times where failure had previously followed their separate efforts.

There were social problems and health problems in the B.—— family. Mr. B.—— was steadily employed at a small wage and turned his pay-envelope over to his wife every week. She paid the bills promptly and kept the house, which was nicely furnished, spotlessly clean. But there was continual quarrelling between husband and wife. Mrs. B.—— accused her husband of never being in the house except for meals, or never helping her with the work. He replied that he would go insane if he stayed in the house as his wife scolded, and nagged all the time, that he never could do anything to suit her, and that the children cried night and day. There were four children, and the youngest, twins of eighteen months, suffered with malnutrition and rickets. The Public Health

nurse tried to get the mother to take the babies to the clinic or to follow the doctor's orders. Appointments were never kept and although sufficient food for the diet prescribed was bought by the mother no improvement took place. The two older children were not trained and presented behaviour problems. Mrs. B.——— was pale, irritable and complained of pain and constant fatigue, but when the nurse succeeded in getting her to attend the out-patient department of a hospital she left without seeing a second doctor to whom she was referred.

The public health nurse and the social worker consulted together and planned for close co-operation. The social agency provided a housekeeper who not only made it possible for Mrs. B.——— to rest, but accompanied her to the clinic with the babies, helped her to prepare the food ordered and to look after the children outdoors. The housekeeper reported that Mrs. B.——— had been trying to force the babies to take the food, but that she was so nervous and impatient with them she seldom succeeded in getting them to take more than a small amount.

The social worker took Mrs. B.——— to the clinic in a car and waited with her while she was passed from one department to another. After several visits she was found to be suffering with a serious ailment which necessitated an operation. There followed placement of the babies in boarding homes where special care was given, of the older children with relatives who were capable of understanding their difficulties, convalescent care for Mrs. B.———, and later provision of assistance with her housework until she regained her strength. Improved physical condition of the mother and children and a better understanding by the father of the disabilities and difficulties under which his wife had been struggling have resulted in a much happier home situation. A great deal of work by health and social agencies was involved and so small expenditure of money, but the work and expense were made effective in saving this home, and in rehabilitating the health of its members through the co-ordinated efforts of the health and social workers.

We know that the cost for adequate public health services is a serious problem. No doubt others will discuss the various schemes that have been proposed as possible solutions, such as Health Insurance, and State Medicine. But whatever the cost and however it is met, the maintenance of health is essential to human welfare, and without health there would be no hope of overcoming the handicaps inherent in dependency and poverty.

To quote the Ontario Health Calendar for 1935:—

"Health is worth whatever expenditure is efficiently incurred in its maintenance or to secure its return."

HOUSING FOR THE LOW WAGE EARNER

The Committee on Housing of the Montreal Council of Social Agencies has published a report under the above title, of which the Editors of this Bulletin are happy to publish the "Introduction and Summary," below. The full report includes also sections on minimum health and neighbourhood standards, incomes and ability to pay rent, what may a family of five expect from a community, building costs and finance, and a bibliography. The report is available at the price of 15c. from the Montreal Council of Social Agencies, 1421 Atwater Avenue, Montreal.

THE dramatic contraction in the construction industry which has extended over six years has inevitably caused a shortage of housing accommodation, with resultant overcrowding in existing houses. This situation, if allowed to continue, will undoubtedly have unfavourable results which will become cumulative. The shortage of dwelling places, coupled with the fact that any stimulation of the construction industry will undoubtedly have the effect of improving the unemployment situation, caused the Montreal Council of Social Agencies in April 1935 to appoint a committee "to study the relationship of housing to the prevention and alleviation of social problems and to establish, in general terms, minimum standards of housing."

The Committee had the advantage of studying two recent Canadian reports, one of the Lieutenant-Governor's Committee on Housing Conditions in Toronto, and the other the report of a Joint Committee appointed by the Montreal Board of Trade and City Improvement League. These reports are quite thorough and exhaustive and it did not seem desirable for the Committee to cover again all the ground which had been satisfactorily considered in these two reports. There were, however, certain aspects of the question with which it was thought the social agencies were in a favourable position to deal, and it was decided that in addition to dealing with general principles of housing certain special studies should be undertaken. The results of these studies are summarized here, and the full studies are attached.

Social welfare organizations continue increasingly to emphasize the preventive side of their work. In the field of health it is very evident that prevention is practical, economical and desirable; in the less tangible field of social morality it is believed that a great deal can be accomplished in the way of preventing social failures and misfits, and it is for these reasons that social agencies consider proper housing to be of fundamental importance.

Relationship of Housing to Health

The close association of poverty and disease has been established as a fact beyond argument. In the decennial studies of occupational mortality in England and Wales, the Registrar General

has constantly found a most striking association. In the report covering the years 1921 - 1923 the Registrar General has divided occupied and retired males of England and Wales in five social classes, according to their economic status. The lowest economic group has a general mortality over 50% higher than the highest economic group and in the case of certain diseases the difference is much greater. Tuberculosis mortality of the lowest economic group is nearly three times and pneumonia mortality twice that of the highest economic group.

In the United States figures from the 1930 Census, published by the National Tuberculosis Association, show an even more marked difference. For example, the death rate of unskilled workers is nearly double that of professional people and the death rate from tuberculosis among unskilled is more than six times that of professional workers. These figures are as correct as they can be made and can hardly be disputed. Their interpretation, however, may be open to some argument.

It is commonly believed that the concomitants of poverty—malnutrition, inadequate clothing, lack of education and improper housing—are the contributing factors in the unfavourable health record of the poor but just what part each of these four factors play is difficult to say. Sir George Newman, perhaps the most distinguished sanitarian of the day, has this to say with respect to housing. "There is no subject in the whole range of Preventive Medicine in which the evidence is so general and incontrovertible as in regard to the ill effects of bad housing upon the human organism." He cites three evils of bad housing :—Diminished personal cleanliness and physique leading to debility, fatigue, unfitness and reduced powers of resistance; high sickness rates, particularly from communicable diseases; and high death rates and lower life expectancies.

Dr. J. G. Fitzgerald in the "Practice of Preventive Medicine" quotes the following figures :

**Death Rate, etc., in Different Areas of Birmingham, England
(5 year Period) (Robertson)**

	BAD AREA	FAIR AREA
Population.....	154,662	133,623
Area (in acres)	1,921	2,998
Death Rate.....	21.1	12.3
Birth Rate.....	32.8	24.0
Infant Mortality Rate.....	171	89
Pulmonary Tuberculosis Death Rate	193	111

"It is of course necessary," Dr. Fitzgerald states, "to appreciate the fact that bad housing is the result in the case of the majority of persons of an unfavourable economic condition. This may be due to any one or more of a great variety of causes. So that housing alone is not responsible for sickness and death. What it may reasonably be held accountable for, among poor persons, often ignorant and struggling against most unfavourable circumstances, is intense exposure to infections, mal-nourishment and the evil consequences of unfavourable environmental conditions. All these favour disease development and increase misery and suffering and destitution. Therefore, improvements in housing and in surroundings will inevitably exercise a favourable influence on the health and well-being of those whose status is thus raised."

The figures given by Fitzgerald can be supported by innumerable studies in England and on the continent. For recent studies the reader is referred to an article by Dr. F. C. Bradbury (*Casual Factors in Tuberculosis*; National Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, London 1933) and Percy Stocks (*The Association between Morality and Density of Housing*; *Proceedings of the Royal Society of Medicine*, Volume 27, pages 1127 and 1146, 1934).

The association between bad housing and bad health is so close as to leave no room for doubt that an improvement in housing would result in an improvement in the health of the people, provided the re-housed population is not called upon to pay higher rents. Furthermore it must be emphasized that a population can be badly housed in good houses if overcrowding is permitted.

Relationship of Housing to Social Morality

As in the case of health, so in the case of delinquency, poverty appears to play a most important role. The factors which enter into the production of a delinquent or anti-social individual can hardly be as precisely stated as in the case of sickness. A recent study made in Cleveland (*An Analysis of a Slum Area of Cleveland*; Cleveland Metropolitan Housing Authority, 1934) presents very suggestive evidence of the relationship between slum conditions and social morality. A slum area of Cleveland was intensively studied. It contained only 2.5% of the total population of Cleveland but it contributed 21% of the murders, 10.4% of the illegitimate births, 12.5% of the tuberculosis deaths and 6.8% of the boys in the Juvenile Court. 26.3% of the houses of prostitution were located in the neighbourhood. Of interest was the fact that although the area cost the public authorities \$1,356,988.00 in 1932 for various services, the revenue amounted to only \$225,035.00.

This study is just one of a number of studies which indicate close association between bad housing and delinquency. Mere association, however, does not imply causation and, as a matter of fact, a similar association can be shown between delinquency and other environmental conditions. The Committee on Housing and the Community, appointed by the President's Conference on Home Building and Home Ownership (see report issued in 1932) have analyzed the literature very thoroughly. To quote from their report, "The conclusion from the preceding survey of the relation between delinquency and housing is that delinquency is concentrated in the areas of bad housing and is associated with a complex of conditions of which bad housing is only one. There is no sufficient reason for believing that an appreciable reduction in delinquency rates will result from improvement of individual houses if other things remain unchanged. The conclusion, on the contrary, is that a reduction in delinquency rates is most likely to result from a program which combines improvements in housing with modifications in other elements in the complex. This combination means, at the least, the development of improved housing in neighbourhood units."

"The principal recommendation of the Group on Housing and Delinquency is that any large-scale plan for the development of housing should be related to a plan for the construction of neighbourhood units in which community organization can be more readily developed and in which the problems of social life, including delinquency problems, can be more readily brought under the control of the local group."

It is probably true to say that no real proof exists that housing per se is responsible for the development of socially inadequate individuals. On the other hand, there is every reason to believe that it plays a most important role. The individual is the product of his or her environment and since the house and its neighbourhood contribute such a large part of the individual's environment, particularly in the young formative years, it would be foolish to doubt that there is a strong causative relationship between housing and social morality. It must be emphasized that the house itself is equally a part of the picture. The neighbourhood in which the house is located is of the greatest importance. The Committee wishes to stress, therefore, its belief that a housing programme, to achieve the best results, must provide certain neighbourhood amenities, such as playgrounds, recreation rooms, etc., which are set down in detail in one of the attached studies.

Social welfare organizations are interested in proper housing, first because it is reasonable to believe that it would result in

an improvement in health, and secondly, it is thought that unquestionably a reduction in delinquency would occur. There are additional reasons, however, which make proper housing a matter of economic interest. These may be cited as follows :—

- Proper housing should result in reduction in the cost to the State of caring for the sick.
- The cost of police protection would be less.
- The cost of fire protection would be less.
- A housing programme should cause a substantial reduction in unemployment relief costs.

These four reasons in themselves may be considered a justification for State participation in the housing venture, even at a loss. Experience has shown that social experiments which have proved successful in the older countries are eventually undertaken on this side of the water and it is true to say that most of the European Governments have been very active in housing reform. The experience of these governments should be of great value to Canada if it were to interest itself in the problem.

Standards of Housing

To establish the fact that housing in any area is unsatisfactory it is necessary to have certain criteria by which satisfactory housing may be judged. The Committee has prepared two sets of standards which may be summarized as follows :

Health Standards — The principal (health) evils associated with bad housing are overcrowding and the lack of fresh air and sunshine. The standard for overcrowding recommended is that laid down in the British Housing Bill of 1934, which in general terms states that not more than two persons to one room should be allowed and at least 70 feet of floor space per person should be provided. Land overcrowding is condemned, also dark rooms and alcove rooms. Porches and stairs should be constructed so as not to shut out light and free circulation of air. The minimum sanitary appliances in each house should be : water closet, sink, wash basin and bath. Outside privies should be prohibited where there are sewage disposal systems. Adequate cooking facilities and food storage space are essential.

Neighbourhood Standards — While it is recognized that undesirable housing conditions are associated with unsatisfactory health conditions, it is equally true that a bad environment produces unsatisfactory social results. There are two essential requirements for the development of adequate mental health and social adjustment in any neighbourhood — (1) the creation of opportunities for

individual self-expression through some activity, and (2) the development of opportunities for participation in group activities.

Separate playgrounds for smaller and larger children are considered essential to meet these requirements and indoor community hall facilities are recommended. To secure the full advantage of these facilities a trained supervisor is needed whose duty it is to supervise maintenance of the facilities and to direct the programme of activities. Specifications are given in some detail of the various playgrounds suggested.

It would be impossible, without considerable expense, to state just how many houses in Montreal fall below these standards; but the testimony of social workers is unanimous that a large proportion of the low wage earning population is by these standards improperly housed. It should be borne in mind that the quality of the house is one thing and the extent of its occupancy another, and the character of the neighbourhood still another. A house may in itself be satisfactory but it may be badly overcrowded or situated in a neighbourhood which is entirely unsuitable from the standpoint of the proper development socially, of the population.

Can Private Enterprise Fill the Need?

The answer to this question is briefly that if private enterprise could fill the need it would have done so and the reason why it has failed is not far to seek. To build a dwelling, whether a house, flat or apartment, conforming to the standards laid down and conforming to municipal buildings now obtaining, would cost, on the average, at least \$3,000 and probably \$3,500. Such a dwelling, in order to provide the private enterprise a profit would have to yield an annual rental of \$300.00 or \$360.00 a year (\$25.00 - \$30.00 monthly). This rental is naturally too high for many wage earners. The average annual income of male wage earners in Montreal in the age group 25 - 49 years, according to the Dominion Bureau of Statistics, was in 1934, \$1,235. This is an average but not necessarily the most typical figure. Some people get a great deal more than this and others a great deal less. There were some 24,701 labourers in Montreal in this age group earning an average annual income of only \$571. Obviously, with wages of this order it is unreasonable to expect rentals of \$300 a year. Socially it is difficult to justify any expenditure for rental from such a meagre income, since for a family of five the annual food bill should be in the neighbourhood of \$400 and certainly such a group should not be called upon to pay more than \$180 a year rental. The figure of \$571, the average income of labourers in 1931, applies to the age group which normally has family

responsibilities, but it is possible that it does not represent the true average income of families in that group since the wife or children might be earning.

In order to determine family incomes as distinct from annual incomes a study was made of a group of 400 families known to the Child Welfare Association. These families might be considered representative of a low wage earning but relatively independent part of the population. None of them were on relief. The modal or most typical family income in this group was about \$75 a month with a secondary mode at \$55 a month. An examination of the report (see below) will show that actually 19% of the families were living on incomes of less than \$50 a month. It should be noted that these figures are monthly figures and in many instances could not be multiplied by 12 to secure annual incomes because of periods of unemployment or sickness.

It is to be expected that family income figures would be higher than the income of the chief family wage earner but both sets of figures indicate very clearly that there is a substantial number of the population living at very low wage levels. Indeed it has always been an enigma to the student of social welfare problems how so many families live on incomes far below any minimum that can be set by any system of budgeting. Of interest in this connection is a complete statement of 250 families as to what they consider a minimum wage for a family of five, what type of house they expect and what rent they consider reasonable. The reader will be impressed with the singularly modest demands of this statement.

The Gap Between High Rents and Low Wages

The foregoing statement of facts brings us to the heart of the housing problem in Montreal and indeed in any modern city. This problem may be enunciated briefly : Under existing building regulations, dwellings conforming to reasonable standards of health and decency cannot be leased by any private enterprise for less than \$25 - \$30 a month. A large section of the population cannot pay more than \$10 - \$16 a month. The problem is, how can this gap be bridged? Four possible ways are suggested :

State Subsidy — The report of the Board of Trade and City Improvement League recommends the method of State subsidy as the only practical solution, and the Committee is inclined to agree that for the housing of people in so-called interior and middle areas, there is no alternative method to suggest. It should be pointed out here again, however, that a subsidy should not necessarily be considered as entirely a drain on the public purse, since

certain savings in expenditure could confidently be expected, such as hospitalization costs, fire and police protection costs. Furthermore a housing programme would undoubtedly provide socially useful work and reduce the cost of unemployment relief.

The manner in which the subsidy is given is worthy of careful study. The English experience appears to be that houses should be built and rented at an economical rental, and that those who are unable to pay the stated rent should be assisted by the local authority so long as necessary. This method has the advantage (1) of individualizing each case, (2) of charging the costs to the authority which would reap the most benefit. The chief disadvantage of such a method lies in the difficulty of persuading municipalities to co-operate. Under the system the central authority is put to no expense at all, the whole cost of the subsidy being borne by the local authority.

Relaxation of Building Standards — The Committee is of the opinion that in certain outlying areas of the city, building standards could safely be relaxed to permit the construction of wooden houses. Plans have been prepared of houses conforming to proper health and neighbourhood standards which can be constructed to rent at from \$14.00 - \$17.00 per month. These plans which provide not only a house but considerable land for a garden are attached. It is recognized, of course, that the erection of dwellings of this type would not be desirable for the more crowded areas and certainly any multiple dwellings of wooden construction would be out of the question. The plans presented, therefore, if acceptable, would only solve part of the housing problem since many lower wage earners do not wish to live on the edge of the City and are not interested in gardens.

Participation of Prospective Householder in the Erection of His Own Dwelling — This procedure has been adopted in Stockholm, apparently with great success. In the construction of a house there are many acts which require the hand of a skilled craftsman, on the other hand there are many acts which require little skill. The Stockholm system provides for the small down payment of \$80.00 and the prospective house owner contributes about \$270.00 through his own labour in the erection of the house which is valued at from \$2,500. to \$3,000. The success of this scheme has depended on the intelligent participation of the city authorities. Instruction is furnished, supplies purchased and certain savings have been effected through standardization. The cost of the government participation is reckoned at from \$125. - \$150. per house and is paid for by the householder so that the plan has not actually cost the taxpayer anything. The Stockholm plan appears

to merit careful study and would quite possibly prove practical in Montreal. It is difficult to see, however, how such a scheme could be applied to multiple dwelling units.

Payment of Sufficient Wages to Enable Economic Rent to be Paid.—Unquestionably this would be the ideal solution, but until industry in general furnishes all wage earners with adequate incomes, recourse to the other expedients referred to above is inevitable.

Home Ownership or Tenancy

The Committee is inclined to believe that many of the reasons which were given in the past in favour of home ownership do not now apply and that better results would be achieved if houses built under a Government sponsored plan were leased and not owned. The following points are cited in favour of this proposition :

Stability of employment does not exist now as formerly. A degree of mobility is of advantage to the wage earner; such mobility is lessened if the worker owns his own dwelling.

The increasing tendency to live in flats and apartments must be recognized as a fact, whether desirable or not.

The advantages to be derived from good housing come as much from the environment of the house as from the house itself. Under a system of home ownership both the conditions of occupancy of the dwelling and the environment of the dwelling are difficult to control. Home ownership in the case of low wage earners favours the recurrence of slum conditions.

Supervision

The Committee believes that if the results anticipated from improved housing are to be realized a type of supervision must be provided which is different from that now available. A housing project to be properly supervised should be under the direction of an individual or individuals who are not merely rent collectors and real estate agents, but individuals appreciative of the controlling part which environment plays in the development of mind and body. Supervisors of this type are being developed in the older countries and are needed in Canada if housing projects are undertaken.

Town Planning

The Committee is in agreement with practically all housing authorities that housing projects on any scale must be preceded and protected by adequate town planning legislation. Such legislation has been proposed by the City Improvement League and a

model act has been prepared which would serve as a very useful basis for legislation.

Organization

Since it is apparent that private enterprise cannot adequately house the low wage earning population, it appears necessary for the Government to enter the field if any improvement is to result. The Committee is of the opinion that the Federal Government should take the initiative in this matter in order, first, to produce a reasonable degree of uniformity throughout the country and secondly, to make available its borrowing powers to secure money at low rates of interest. The question as to what form of central organization should be created seems to be a matter of practice rather than principle and the Committee is therefore not expressing an opinion on the matter.

Conclusion

Evidence has been produced to show the close relationship between proper housing and the proper physical and social development of the population.

On an economic basis an average dwelling conforming to proper standards must produce a rental of \$25 - \$30. a month, which is almost twice the capacity of low wage earners to pay.

The gap between high rents and low wages is the crux of the housing problem. This can only be filled by one of four methods which are discussed.

With regard to the question of home ownership or tenancy it is considered that for the low wage earner tenancy should be favoured.

A housing project to produce the best results must be under the supervision of one who has an appreciation of the social value of good housing.

A housing scheme must be protected by adequate town planning legislation.

The participation of the Federal Government is recommended to secure reasonable uniformity throughout the country and to make available its borrowing powers to secure money at low rates of interest.

Five special studies are attached as follows * :—

- a. Health Standards.
- b. Neighbourhood Standards.
- c. Ability of the Wage Earner to Pay Rent.
- d. What May a Family of Five Expect from a Community?
- e. Plans for Cheap Wooden Houses.

* These are to be found in the full report. Space does not permit further references to these sections in this article—Ed.



MATERNAL AND CHILD HYGIENE

"EXPERIMENTS IN HEALTH EDUCATION"

EDUCATION and the part it should play in the development of young people is a subject for continuous thought and con-

sideration on the part of educators. The progressive education movement, though often felt to be extreme in its method and outlook, has done much to bring into the limelight the possibilities of activity and self direction in the learning process. Certainly these two factors are of outstanding importance if one is considering teaching and learning in relation to such a subject as health, where theoretical knowledge may be interesting but is useless to the individual unless it goes hand in hand with a type of activity that contributes to his own health and to the health of those around him.

It has been interesting to note, in the Special Bulletin of the Health Education Section of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education, a copy of which was received recently, the excellent report given of an experiment in Health Teaching in Ontario.

In 1936, three people from the Departments of Health and Education, Dr. J. T. Phair, Chief Medical Officer of Health of Ontario, Miss Mary Power, Director of the Division of Health Education, and Mr. Robert H. Roberts, Inspector of Public Schools, went to New York to address a meeting of this section. They outlined the formulation and carrying out of their plans to : "establish a sense of concern on the part of the school in not only the present physical condition but the future health behaviour of the pupil, to fix the extent of the contribution to be made to such a programme by all those who might be considered as having anything to offer, and to prepare the teacher to assume her rightful place in such a programme."

Their first "experiment" was an effort to appraise the teaching value of certain materials readily available to teachers. In turn that led to the formation of a plan for health teaching and the consideration of a manual, and to the establishment of a summer school course in Health Teaching. The course is run on approved "health lines", and the necessity for healthy living recognized for

student teachers as it should be for pupils. In addition there was for a time follow up of those teachers who had taken the course, and a service from the Health Department to provide supplementary material of various kinds.

The comment of the Special Bulletin on these three papers was as follows : "These significant experiments which cannot be adequately reported in the limited space suggest some much needed studies in the United States, for example, what evidence of cooperation between State, city and county health and education authorities can be found in the United States? How many teachers who take courses in health education are followed into their classrooms by those giving the courses? How many courses in health education for teachers have substituted "assignments requiring initiative and personal investigation" for formal examinations? How many teachers in health education summer courses are given complete health examinations at the beginning and leave the course "refreshed"? How much assistance is given teachers in testing the educational validity as well as the scientific accuracy of health education materials?"

F. Y.



FAMILY WELFARE AND RELATED PROBLEMS

MONTREAL FAMILY AGENCY ESTABLISHES LIAISON WORKER IN RELIEF OFFICE

IN January 1936, on a three months' experimental basis, the Montreal Family Welfare Association assigned a member of its social work staff to special liaison work with the Montreal Unemployment Relief Commission. By special arrangement with the Commission, the worker was given space in the Commission offices and devoted her efforts to the adjustment of special cases where eligibility for unemployment relief was uncertain or its establishment delayed, and to other problems of unemployment relief which were constantly coming to the private agency for solution or directional guidance.

The three months' experiment demonstrated the values of this service from many points of view, not the least of them being the time saving element to the private agency in meeting the great volume of requests to assist the unemployed in their difficulties. The close association of the worker with the Commission staff facilitated frequent consultation and the rapid adjustments of cases where eligibility for relief was doubtful. To the families of the unemployed presenting problems which relief alone could not solve, or in difficulty due to a misunderstanding or violation of relief regulations, this department offered a service of understanding and practical help whose value could not be estimated in tangible terms.

At the end of the three month period the service was continued on a permanent basis as the "Unemployment Adjustment Department of the Family Welfare Association". In 1936, 1225 cases and 446 enquiries were dealt with and during the latter months of the year action was taken on an average of 40 cases a day—old cases presenting new problems and new cases referred for the first time. These cases are referred from many sources—66 per cent from various branches of the Family Welfare Association itself, 9 per cent from the Relief Commission and 25 per cent from 36 other sources including hospitals, churches, health agencies and interested persons. We quote the following extract from the worker's report for 1936 :

"The widening circle of agencies from which our intake is drawn would seem to indicate that this section is not only meeting

the needs of its own organization, but is being found useful to other social agencies within the community. The fact of being able to discuss unemployment relief problems with a social worker in direct touch with the official organization has been appreciated.

"In the past, before the establishment of the Unemployment Adjustment Department, Family Welfare cases took anywhere from two weeks to a month to adjust. With a worker on the spot, the process has been greatly expedited and the organization feels that it has been able to give more satisfactory service to its clients. Only 54% of the cases examined received financial assistance and 30% of these were helped only once for a period of a few days. The total amount disbursed by the Department during the year 1936 was \$2,752.28. This compares favourably with the \$1,400 the Association expended on unemployment relief during the last two months of 1935.

"In referring to problems of unemployment relief, let us not forget that the Montreal Unemployment Relief Commission is a government agency set up to administer *unemployment relief*; that only those who could work, were work available, are entitled to its benefits, and that the Commission is responsible by law for carrying out the functions for which it was set up. The efficiency with which this government machine functions is well known to most of you but to only a few has been afforded the opportunity of observing the generous way in which it is lubricated with the oil of human understanding.

"Nevertheless applicants for relief sometimes do get caught in the wheels and experience difficulty in extricating themselves. It is then that they become our clients.

"Let me cite to you some examples of the types of cases which come to our attention. Mr. Nelson was refused relief because he was considered ineligible. Born in Montreal, he had lived in the City all his life, with the exception of a few months when he played amateur soft ball and travelled with his team. Recently he married and set up a home of his own but being unemployed, applied for City relief. Except under special circumstances, applicants for relief must be in possession of an identification card. This Mr. Nelson could not secure, as he was very hazy regarding the dates of his absences from the City and could, therefore, not prove legal residence. He applied to one of our district offices and was referred to this Department. After questioning the man closely, it was discovered that he had married against his mother's wishes, and no longer visited the home. His mother, however, was still living in the City and was discovered to be drawing unemployment relief. Reference to the records showed the son

was previously registered and in receipt of relief under his mother's name. Residence qualifications could, therefore, be established. A letter from his team manager, confirming the dates of absence from the City, was all that was then needed to make registration possible. Until acceptance, the man and his wife had to turn for support to the Family Welfare Association.

"Being entirely without resources, Mr. West had applied for relief but according to the employer's report, he left of his own accord and was, therefore, not acceptable. He had been with the firm for a number of years and, on enquiry, it was found that he had always been considered a reliable workman. Transferred to another department, Mr. West was required to wear special glasses for his own protection. These affected his eyes and made him feel dizzy, so he refused to wear them. He was willing to take the risk and continue the work without, but this was not allowed and Mr. West was dismissed. A letter of explanation secured from the employer cleared up the misunderstanding and relief was granted.

"When a man goes out of the City to look for work, care must be exercised in order to ensure that his wife and children will continue to draw relief until such time as he is able to send either funds for their maintenance or travelling expenses to the new home. Failure to notify departure from the City reacts unfavourably upon those left behind. Even when arrangements have been made with the Commission prior to departure, the applicant must keep in touch with the registrar and inform him if and when he obtains employment. Mr. Kosczuk went to the mines in Northern Ontario and wrote telling his wife how he was situated. The letter was written in Bulgarian and in it the enthusiastic husband stated that he had "hopes" of work. In order to encourage his wife, he painted glowing pictures of life in the future when they would have a wonderful boarding-house full of miners, each paying \$10.00 per week. But this bright and prosperous picture, like the proverbial pig that would not jump over the stile, depended on many things, for thus wrote Mr. Kosczuk : 'If I get work I shall buy a lot, and if I buy a lot I will build a house, and if I build a house you will come and live in it, and if you come we will work hard and take in many boarders and make lots of money.' Unfortunately the translation of the letter on file had been done by someone not very conversant with the language, and visions were taken for facts. A knowledge of this particular Balkan tongue was sufficient to point out to the authorities that the letter had been misinterpreted. It was, therefore, necessary to arrange for a clergyman from the Church of All Nations to come to the

Commission, make a complete translation of the letter and communicate in his own language with the man in the North, before this family of seven persons were temporarily reaccepted on relief.

"Children start to work, sometimes even without the knowledge of their parents; an applicant obtains a period of employment and fails to declare it; a member of the family enters hospital or leaves home for a space of time and does not notify the Commission and full relief is drawn until such time as the wilful or unwilful deceit is discovered. Such cases are known as reimbursement cases and often come to our attention. Many cannot be assisted but must bear the burden of their own transgressions, as these problems lie beyond our field. Sometimes, however, reimbursement can be averted if evidence contrary to the information on file can be produced as, for example, when employers turn in false reports of wages in order to appear to comply with the requirements of the Minimum Wage Board, or when incorrect dates of employment are given.

"Unfortunately father cannot always be relied upon to draw the weekly ration cheque or purchase the necessary household requirements when mother goes into hospital. Such a case was recently brought to our attention when a call was received from the Social Service Department of one of our hospitals. Mrs. Wallace had been admitted the previous evening and a few hours later gave birth to her sixth child. She was worried about the family cheque. Mr. Wallace had a distinct penchant for "playing the horses" and to draw the weekly ration cheque was too great a temptation. For some time it had been made payable to his wife. The cheque was due next day and Mrs. Wallace could not be at the Ward office to collect it. Could anything be arranged? On enquiry it was found that the family were already known to one of our district offices and that arrangements had been made for a housekeeper to be in the home during Mrs. Wallace's pregnancy. The circumstances of the family were explained to the official concerned and the decision made that the cheque be drawn and administered by the Family Welfare Association during the period of Mrs. Wallace's hospitalization. Later when the date of the woman's discharge was known, the Commission was informed, the cheque augmented to include the new baby and once more made out in Mrs. Wallace's name.

"As is always the case in social work, one might go on indefinitely multiplying examples and describing different phases of it. I have chosen these cases, not because they are in any way special or outstanding, but because they are typical of the problems which come to us for elucidation."



LEISURE TIME AND EDUCATIVE ACTIVITIES

BRITISH GOVERNMENT AIDS RECREATION

\$10,000,000 FOR SUBSIDIES

THE British Government made public on the 4th of February the detailed proposals of its plan for a fitter Britain. Foremost is the immediate setting up of—

Two national advisory councils — one for England and Wales and one for Scotland — to advise on the best methods of meeting the needs and the general lines of advance; and

Two grants committees, through whom grants will be payable subject to approval of the responsible Minister.

The advisory councils will each be composed of about 30 men and women with knowledge and experience of the work of local authorities and of national voluntary bodies, and with special knowledge of the problems involved.

The grants committees will each consist of three members.

\$10,000,000 Capital

It is not possible to give a close estimate of the cost, but something in the nature of \$10,000,000 for capital expenditure, spread over the next three years, and about \$750,000 a year for current expenditure would, the Government believes, provide adequate facilities for a demand much greater than it is to-day, in rural as well as in urban areas.

Other immediate steps the Government proposes to take are—

Invite the national councils to organise local committees to develop and co-ordinate the work in the various localities and advise the grants committees;

Establish a National College of Physical Training and make a grant to the National Playing Fields Association;

Make a grant to the Central Council of Recreative Physical Training for promoting the supply of teachers and leaders.

Legislation will also be introduced to make it possible for the grants committees to make grants to voluntary bodies and local authorities.

The powers of local authorities will be extended in various directions to give effect to the proposals in the scheme.

In particular, these authorities will be enabled to provide community centres generally throughout their areas.

The Government emphasizes that it does not propose to build up a completely new compulsory system, but to make use to the full through the agency of the local authorities and the national voluntary organizations of the machinery which at present exists.

It explains that while a scheme operated directly by the State might have advantages in securing a uniform distribution of facilities, it would be open to the risk that by its very uniformity it would fail to attract.

The use of a wide variety of agencies is to minimise the risk.

Whether physical education should be voluntary or compulsory was considered a vital question.

While compulsion would be the only way to secure that every boy and girl on leaving school should receive some measure of physical training, the Government decided it is alien to the national temper and tradition.

It would be fraught with administrative difficulties and would demand general definitions of standards of attainment and courses to be pursued, which would in turn tend to stultify the aim of the Government.

This is to inculcate a widespread realization that physical fitness promotes a healthy mind and human happiness, and is something more than the regular practising of physical exercises and the attainment of a certain standard of proficiency.

Only Method

The Government realizes that a voluntary system involves only gradual development, but they are satisfied that it represents the only method of approach likely to achieve success.

There will, therefore, be no element of compulsion in the Government's scheme.

Attendance at classes and clubs will be voluntary, and all branches of physical culture — not merely physical training of a formal character but also every means of healthy physical recreation —will be encouraged. Emphasis will be laid on the social and recreative sides of physical education.

The observation is made that at present both local authorities and voluntary bodies are often handicapped by lack of funds, more particularly in the poorest areas, where the need is frequently the greatest.

The Government says it is well aware of the importance of formal physical training, but it is also conscious of the importance of, and the widespread demand for, other forms of physical recreation, such as games, swimming and other physical activities.

They have, therefore, decided that the whole field of physical culture must be included in the scheme, which must provide for an increase not only of gymnasia, but also of playing fields, swimming baths and other means of physical recreation.

As regards the setting up of local committees, there will not necessarily be a committee for every county or country borough.

These committees may function more effectively if they are appointed for a comparatively wide area. A local committee may, however, appoint subcommittees to deal with any particular parts of its area, should this be desirable.

The Government hopes through these bodies to secure much wider facilities in country areas — where the need is not less urgent than it is in urban areas — than are now available.

Other Legislation

The success of the local committee will to a large extent depend on the appointment of a suitable paid secretary, and the grants committee will have power to meet approved expenditure on administration.

It is not anticipated that any extension of the present facilities for the training of teachers and leaders in Scotland will be required.

Other legislation which will be necessary to give full effect to the scheme will be to empower local authorities to exercise the same powers of providing or aiding the provision of community centres as they have in connection with their housing estates.

Local education authorities can at present provide or aid the provision of physical and social facilities for persons over the age of 18 only in so far as they are attending an educational institution. This limitation will be removed.

In England and Wales the responsible Minister will be the President of the Board of Education; in Scotland the Secretary of State.

WILLIAM BOWIE,
Chairman, Division on Leisure Time Services.

ED. NOTE: In considering the applicability of any such measures to Canada, and in any comparisons between Britain's measures of social aid and similar provisions in Canada, it is essential to distinguish between the simple fact of one central government in the Old Country, and the federal-provincial system of Canada. There are but two units of government in Great Britain — the central government and the local (in Canada the municipal) government authorities. With certain exceptions, in definitions of state responsibility the unit of comparable service and jurisdiction in Canada to the central government in Great Britain is the Province.

RECREATION FOR YOUTH

Survey Reveals Need

THE recently completed survey on "Youth and Recreation in Toronto", conducted by a Civic Recreation Committee, with William R. Cook as Chairman, and paid for by the Toronto City Council, brought to light some startling facts.

The survey revealed that the number of youth 17 to 19 years of age (inclusive) arrested for criminal offences in 1934, was more than *double* what it was in 1927, while during the same period offences by those next older became fewer, and so did juvenile delinquents. This state of affairs was due mainly to the lack of recreation facilities for the 17 to 19 year age group.

The following additional facts were also brought out:—

- (1) Only four in ten claim membership affiliation with any athletic, social, religious or recreational group.
- (2) The average young person does not go more than half a mile to use recreation facilities.
- (3) The ten recreations most suitable and most longed for require expense for equipment or fees.

Young people are kept from suitable recreation by:—

- (1) Expenses
- (2) Lack of facilities
- (3) Not knowing what is open to them
- (4) Distance
- (5) Pride and timidity.

Young people desire:—

- (1) Social recreations in which both sexes can join.
- (2) Accessible facilities for those without money.
- (3) Facilities for other forms of recreation besides athletic sports.
- (4) Leadership which will advise but not try to compel.
- (5) Some responsibility for deciding and managing for themselves.

It was further brought out that there is a lack of publicly provided activity for the youth group. No public agency is planning recreational activity with them. The schools are not responsible for people above school age. The playgrounds serve younger children.

The survey showed that churches were doing a good job, but they were handicapped because of the lack of suitable facilities to look after large numbers.

The provision of adequate recreation for our youth is a complex community responsibility which has come to stay.

Guiding Principles

- (1) The problem of recreation for unemployed young men and women is the problem of recreation for everybody.
- (2) Recreation is a community responsibility in the same way that public health is.
- (3) Recreation is more than mere amusement or than sport.
- (4) Trained, competent, sympathetic Recreation Leadership is vitally necessary.
- (5) The organization of resources to make them easily available is more desirable than plans for pressing youth into schemes of standardized recreation.

A concrete recommendation arising from the survey urged that a Civic Recreation Board be appointed to co-ordinate the various recreation facilities and services now provided by separate departments and boards.

The great need is for the establishment of community centre activities which would provide a wide range of social and athletic programmes for the older teen-age group.

The following final recommendation of the Toronto survey is a general one and is applicable to other Canadian cities:—

"The degree of public responsibility for recreation for youth—those young men and women above school age—is a difficult question. The schools are not now charged with this responsibility. If, however, appropriations were made for the purpose and the schools asked to tackle the job, they are admirably equipped from the point of view of facilities, personnel and administrative leadership. Two alternatives suggest themselves: (a) that responsibility for youth recreation be given the Boards of Education or (b) that the City Playgrounds be devoted primarily to the interests of the youth group, and the schools take over full responsibility for all publicly supported recreation for school children."

WILLIAM BOWIE.



COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

FIFTH CANADIAN CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL WORK

THE fifth Canadian Conference on Social Work will be held at the Chateau Laurier, Ottawa, June 1st, 2nd and 3rd.

Reverend A. E. Armstrong, Director of Catholic Charities for the Diocese of Ottawa, will be President in place of Major C. S. Ford who found it necessary to resign on account of pressure of other duties.

The programme is in charge of Miss Dorothy King of the Montreal School of Social Work. It is planned to have only three divisions of the Conference instead of the usual five, so that more concentrated thought can be given to the problems with which Canadian Social Workers are faced. Dr. H. M. Cassidy, Director of Social Welfare for the Province of British Columbia, has accepted the chairmanship of the division on Public Welfare, and Miss Nora Lea, Supervisor of Child Protection Department of the Children's Aid Society, Toronto, will be chairman of the division on Case Work. The third division will be Community Planning — chairman to be announced later. Afternoons will be reserved for round table conferences or meetings of allied groups who may wish to take this opportunity of meeting together.

The Ottawa Council of Social Agencies has agreed to be the local sponsor of the Conference, and requests the support of all social workers in making a success of this undertaking which has had to be planned on very short notice. Communications should be addressed to Miss J. A. Maines, Secretary of the Council of Social Agencies, 172 Wellington Street, Ottawa.

* * *

SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING CANADIAN WELFARE COUNCIL

IMMEDIATELY preceding the sessions of the Canadian Conference on Social Work, the Canadian Welfare Council will hold its seventeenth annual meeting in the Chateau Laurier, Ottawa, on Monday evening, May 31st. Round table conferences of the Council's various divisions will be arranged on Monday, May 31st, and June 1st at such times as will not conflict with the Canadian Conference sessions opening June 1st. The Council hopes to have

one or more distinguished visitors to Canada as participants in its forthcoming meetings. Particulars will be forwarded to Council members in the near future.

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BRITISH COLUMBIA PROVINCIAL WORKERS MEET

AN important conference of the senior and technical officers of the Health and Welfare Services, Provincial Secretary's Department of British Columbia, was held in Vancouver from January 4 to January 6. This was the second conference of its kind, the first having been held in November, 1934. About 80 members of the staff, senior administrative officers and their immediate assistants and technical officers such as physicians, nurses, and social workers, were present. The Minister in charge of these services, the Honourable G. M. Weir, Provincial Secretary, was in attendance throughout the conference and this was much appreciated by the staff.

The conference was mainly concerned with the practical problems of public health and public welfare administration in British Columbia. A number of the sessions were arranged as round tables on particular topics, such as "Coordination of Provincial, Municipal and Private Health and Welfare Services", "Administrative Problems" and "Statistics".

The remainder of the program consisted of addresses by the senior officers regarding their major problems and ways and means of meeting them. In this way a general review of the work of the health and welfare services was presented.

The only public session of the conference was held on Monday, January 4, when Dr. Weir addressed an open meeting on "Recent Progress in Health and Welfare". In his address Dr. Weir touched briefly upon the main developments in the health and welfare field in British Columbia during his three years as Provincial Secretary. He was preceded by the Provincial Health Officer, Dr. H. E. Young, who spoke on "The Background of the Health and Welfare Services." Dr. Young was Provincial Secretary from 1907 to 1915, and in that capacity was responsible for laying the foundations of many of the services which have been substantially developed and reorganized under Dr. Weir's regime.

Since discussions at the conference were confidential it is not permissible to report them on points of detail. Nevertheless, it is possible to make a few general notes which may be of interest to readers of "Child and Family Welfare".

The *esprit de corps* of the group was a matter of general comment. There was a keenness and enthusiasm expressed by those present which would have done credit to the members of any vigorous private organization. Discussion was vigorous and active at all sessions, and the suggestions that were thrown up for improving the work of the services were very numerous. One could have wished that those cynics who do not believe that efficiency can be developed in the public service could have been present at these sessions. It is possible to believe that they might have been agreeably surprised.

Another point that emerged very clearly from the discussions was the general recognition of the close interrelation of all the health and welfare services under the jurisdiction of the Provincial Secretary's Department—and the relation of these services to outside services such as unemployment relief and old age pensions administered by the Provincial Government, the various municipal health and welfare services, and the private services. From person after person there came pleas for a greater coordination of all of this work. Approval was expressed of the steps towards coordination which had been made under Dr. Weir, but there was general agreement that very much more remained to be done before there was anything like complete integration of health and welfare administration in British Columbia.

There was also complete unanimity on the desirability of additional emphasis on policies of prevention and rehabilitation. It was recognized that the great burden of work falling at present upon the staff of the Health and Welfare Services had to do with curative work in the health field, straight relief in the welfare field, and detention in the delinquency field. It was felt by all who spoke that the costs of an adequate programme of prevention and rehabilitation would be distinctly lower, at least in the long run, than the costs of a programme in which these principles were not stressed.

The social workers of the Health and Welfare Services received a great deal of commendation. There are now on the staff 27 trained or partially trained social workers, of whom 18 are members of the Welfare Field Service, a central corps serving all branches. It was particularly interesting to note that public health officers, physicians and administrators of institutions recognized keenly the value to them of the professional social worker and that they favoured strongly the policy which has been followed of building up a staff of trained social workers as rapidly as possible. It was pointed out repeatedly that the social worker was a money-saver. Since expenditures upon the provincial health and welfare services now

amount to about \$4,500,000 per annum it is quite clear that the salaries for some 27 social workers represent only a minor administrative expense.

Generally speaking, the attitude of the conference was one of keen interest in work in hand, appreciation of the progress that had been achieved under Dr. Weir and hope for the future. To the professional men and women who were present it appeared that there were reasonable prospects of the professional point of view receiving still further consideration from the Government in the formulation of its health and welfare policies. This, perhaps, more than anything else, inspires energy, enthusiasm and hope in the technical officers of British Columbia's health and welfare services and gives to them a creative interest in their jobs.

H. M. CASSIDY.

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SIXTY-NINE QUESTIONS ANSWERED

"*Questions and Answers about Community Chests and Councils of Social Agencies*", published by *Community Chests and Councils, Inc., 155 East 44th Street, New York.* Single copies 25 cents, ten or more 20 cents, one hundred or more 15 cents each.

SI XTY-NINE QUESTIONS most frequently asked about Community Chests and Councils are dealt with in this readable and convenient little handbook for members of social work staffs, committee members of social agencies and any persons interested in the philosophy and practice of co-operative financing and planning of welfare work. A brief historical reference applicable to the movement on the American continent, definitions of Chest and Council functions, and some "vital statistics" of the successes and failures of federated financing in more than five hundred cities are included in the introductory section. Then follow sections, all in question and answer form, offering information on the financial records of community chest financing in terms of money raised, and numbers of subscribers, the objectives and achievements of co-operative social planning, various forms of community chest organization, the relation of the financing body to its member agencies and to its subscribers, the manner in which the campaign is organized, and the interpretive publicity associated with the money raising effort and the year round operation of the organization. A short bibliography is appended to the manual.

Such questions as percentage costs of administration for cities of large and small population, support of national services, partici-

pation of such organizations as the Red Cross, Salvation Army, Y.W.C.A., Y.M.C.A., sectarian and fraternal societies, etc., are given brief statistical reference.

The remarkable growth of the community chest movement and its steady advance through the depression years is seen in one table recording the increase from 39 campaigns raising under \$20,000,000 in 1920, to 448 campaigns raising an estimated \$80,000,000 in 1937.

This manual will be a useful addition to the reference library of the social agency and the interested volunteer.

M. B.

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FURTHER COMMUNITY CHEST TOTALS

Too late for the last issue of this Bulletin, the Winnipeg Community Chest reported its final total of subscriptions and pledges for the autumn campaign of 1936 as \$288,864. This exceeds the previous year's total by more than \$20,000. Corrected subscription and pledge totals for the Halifax Community Chest are \$59,027 for the 1936 campaign as compared with \$57,781 for the previous year. The grand total for 1936 campaigns (most of them to finance participating agencies through 1937) now stands at \$3,197,840 with a further return expected from Regina where a supplementary campaign has been in progress this month. The forthcoming spring campaign of the Federation of French Canadian Charities of Montreal will take place April 17th to 27th.

PUBLIC WELFARE SERVICES

B.C.'S PROGRESS IN HEALTH AND WELFARE

The Honourable G. M. Weir, Provincial Secretary for British Columbia, spoke at a recent conference of the staff of the provincial Health and Welfare Services, which is reported elsewhere in this issue of the Bulletin, on the subject "Recent Progress in Health and Welfare." The concluding portion of Dr. Weir's address which was broadcast over a provincial radio network, is reproduced below:

Seven Milestones of Progress



THIS is the record of what has been done in three short years. In all of that time there have been day by day emergencies to meet, unprecedented demands for service and a shortage of money so that we have been working "under fire", with little time for the calm and leisurely planning which usually produces the best results. Yet out of our work emerges a list of constructive achievements of which it is possible to be proud. Let me summarize the major items in this list as Seven Milestones of Progress :

Health Insurance — The health insurance act of 1936 will give to British Columbia, in 1937, the honour of leading the way, on this continent, with the application of a system of health protection that has proven successful in 25 or more of the leading countries of the world.

Tuberculosis Control — Our new tuberculosis programme, inaugurated in 1935, unifies and extends the anti-tuberculosis programme of the province and gives to British Columbia a preventive organization unsurpassed in Canada and perhaps in North America.

Venereal Disease Control — This work was reorganized in 1936 to give this province the most modern and efficient service that is possible.

Health Units — Modern health units, staffed by full-time doctors and nurses with public health training, have been established in the Peace River District, in Greater Vancouver and in the Fraser Valley and groundwork has been laid for further development.

Mothers' Pensions Reforms — Drastic depression reductions have been largely restored and administrative policy has been liberalized.

The Welfare Field Service—This service, organized in 1935, breaks new ground in Canada by providing a central corps of skilled social workers who represent all branches of the Health and Welfare Services in the field.

Foundations for Future Development—A large amount of research and planning has been done, providing us with a clear-cut programme for the future; and a staff of technically competent, progressive and enthusiastic men and women has been built up to carry the burden of future administration.

Seven Pillars of Aspiration

But seven milestones of progress are not enough. We still have a long way to go before we shall have built in this province a thoroughly modern system of health and welfare services. May I set down next the major objectives for which I think we should work during the next three or four years. Let us call them the seven pillars of aspiration :

Consolidation of Gains—There is much to be done in every field of work where there has been progress to consolidate gains, to improve and extend service, to build for permanence.

A Mental Hygiene Programme—We need extension and modernization of our mental hospitals, a new training school for the feeble-minded and a psychopathic hospital, all of these together calling for a carefully-planned construction programme; and with this must go a great extension of mental hygiene clinics, psychiatric social work and education in mental hygiene, to the end that mental breakdowns are prevented as far as possible.

A Provincial System of Health Units—Modern health units such as those of Greater Vancouver and the Peace River District should be established throughout the province, so that the local public health services are performed by not more than 12 or 15 health units large enough to do efficient work.

Medical Services for Indigents—A well-organized system of medical and dental care for those unable to purchase these services for themselves should be worked out, which would provide (among other things) reasonable compensation to doctors and dentists.

A Provincial Hospital Policy—The hospitals of the province should be rendered financially more independent of the Province and the municipalities than they are today, provision for the care of chronic and convalescent patients outside of general hospitals should be made, social services to assist the hospitals should be improved and other measures should be taken to clear hospital beds for the acutely ill. In addition a general policy on new

construction, adapted to probable future needs for hospitalization, should be adopted.

A Juvenile Delinquency Programme—A clear-cut, long-range policy to deal with juvenile delinquency, involving coordination of juvenile courts and industrial schools and establishment of a Borstal Unit was worked out last summer by a committee which reported to the Attorney-General and myself.

Permanent Organization of the Health and Welfare Services.—In the past these services have been too loosely organized, each one existing largely as a law unto itself. There has been much progress in reorganization already, to make of them a unity, but much more remains to be done. The provincial and the municipal services must be coordinated, so that they function in harmony. There should be greater coordination between health and welfare and unemployment relief. The outcome of further reorganization may lead to the formation of a provincial Department of Health and Welfare through which a unified provincial programme can be efficiently directed and administered.

When these objectives are achieved British Columbia's health and welfare services will be built upon firm foundations. They will be designed to prevent, so far as possible, the breakdown of health and of capacity for self-support, and to rehabilitate promptly those who do break down. Insofar as they are genuinely preventive they will be economical, for it is a truism that it is infinitely cheaper for the state to prevent ill-health or destitution or delinquency than it is to provide care for the afflicted. When this programme is achieved we may anticipate with confidence that British Columbia will be second to no province of the Dominion and to no state of the American Union in her health and welfare services.

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THE REPORT OF A VISIT TO THE GOVERNMENT TRAINING CENTRE, SPRINGBURN, GLASGOW,

August 1936

"Gateway to Industry" would be a suitable inscription, if the Ministry of Labour ever contemplate a coat-of-arms for their instructional centre in the Springburn district of Glasgow.

For the nucleus of a dozen trades lies behind this red brick building in Cowlairs Road, and there hundreds of young men are trained to use their hands and the tools of the vocation they aspire to follow.

The Government Training Centre absorbs men between the ages of 19 and 30 years, and offers them their initial experience in industry.

This is Scotland's one and only training centre, although there are numerous establishments in England carrying on the same good work, in addition to instructional camps, where men are given outdoor work and a chance to restore their health.

Six Months' Course

Trainees are selected by Labour Exchanges in Special Areas and appointed to the centres, where they receive a six months' course in the trade they have decided to adopt.

Those who enroll at Springburn are local youths—the majority of them unmarried. No promise of work is held out after the training period is over, but it is gratifying to learn that 90 percent of the trainees were placed in jobs by the Ministry of Labour last year.

For eight years the Springburn centre has been in operation. The work of the highly-skilled instructors is encouraged by the almost daily reception of letters from youths who have made good in industry as the result of their experience at the Government Training Centre.

At the moment, 216 men are receiving what really amounts to individual tuition in various branches of engineering, machining, fitting and turning metal work, welding (acetylene and electric), cement work, coach-building, carpentry, terrazzo, motor mechanics, gas, water and heat plumbing, and hairdressing.

The trainee is disciplined to conform to factory regulations and customs in the matter of punctuality, good behaviour, and the drawing of tools and equipment from the store. He clocks in at 8 a.m. works on till noon, receives a satisfactory lunch consisting of meat, bread and two vegetables, a sweet and a cup of tea.

After lunch, he resumes training until 4.30 p.m. On Fridays he lines up to receive 2 shillings as a weekly pocketmoney allowance. During his training, of course, he is drawing all the unemployment benefits he would normally receive.

Periodic Tests

Every trainee is given exercises designed to teach him the use of the tools in the particular trade he is keen on. The Government Training Centre is not competing with commercial firms. Articles which are made in the course of the exercises are destroyed.

At specified periods, the trainee is subjected to tests, and there is a final examination when his six months' training is over. Lectures are part of the weekly curriculum.

Most of the engineering trades are in favour at the moment, while there is a waiting list for tuition in welding, for employment in these particular industries is more plentiful.

An interesting department at Springburn is the terrazzo section. This trade was at one time almost exclusively Italian, but the Scot is finding it attractive, and going in for it more extensively.

Only in exceptional cases are trainees allowed to switch from one trade to another. A visit to the Government Training Centre reveals the trainees keen on their job, and highly appreciative of the opportunity of learning the foundation of a trade.

Instructor at Hand

Many of them don't know what it is to draw their first week's wages. "After moochin' about street corners with time and no prospects on our hands, it's just great getting up in the mornings and coming here to learn a trade," was a comment we got during our visit.

WILLIAM BOWIE.

FRENCH-SPEAKING SERVICES

ORGANIZATION FÉMININE DANS LE QUÉBEC

THAIS LACOSTE FREMONT

LA sanglante expérience de 1914-1918 a prouvé une fois de plus la fragilité de l'organisation sociale, et comme il est pénible, dans un siècle où l'on croyait être dans une civilisation avancée, de constater combien il y a encore d'efforts à faire pour parvenir à cet état de supériorité sociale.

De magnifiques développements de la science sont obtenus; le génie de l'homme suscite des découvertes extraordinaires; la radio, l'aéroplane, le perfectionnement des machines atteignent un degré de rendement de tout premier ordre; l'hygiène a été développée largement, et pourtant, il y a encore un nombre considérable d'êtres humains qui n'en bénéficient pas; le confort et le luxe ont atteint, semble-t-il leur apogé, et l'on voit le contraste saisissant de misères sordides. La crise économique, conséquence inévitable de tant de déséquilibres secoue l'humanité qui éprouve des spasmes dououreux, angoissants et qui crie sa douleur parfois avec désespoir.

La nécessité d'une réforme sociale

Devant cette situation tragique, les esprits supérieurs, qui ont le sens social, sont les premiers à réagir, et expriment publiquement la nécessité d'une réforme qui s'impose. Le fait est admis, en général, mais les systèmes préconisés sont multiples; le fascisme l'hitlérisme, le communisme rivalisent, dans le domaine civil pour détruire la démocratie qui semble avoir manqué de prévoyance en n'ayant pu contrôler tant d'abus de toutes sortes. La montée de la vague matérialiste a été si forte qu'elle est devenue déchaînée et hors contrôle.

Pendant un temps les discussions s'engagent sur le domaine économique et social seulement; puis elles atteignent le domaine religieux: certains pays se dressent officiellement contre Dieu. Ceux qui croient aux valeurs spirituelles de l'âme et de l'esprit, après l'étonnement premier qu'ils ressentent, se rendent compte que nous ne sommes pas devant une simple tempête passagère, mais bien à un immense tournant dans l'histoire du monde, une époque de transition d'où sortira beaucoup de bien ou un mal navrant. L'esprit humain cherche sa voie au milieu du désordre, et beaucoup d'efforts sociaux s'accomplissent sur tous les points du globe. Le plus large d'entre eux est celui accompli par la Société

des Nations, dont le but est de favoriser la paix en améliorant l'ordre social; un grand sentiment d'humanité est à la base même de cette institution qui a déjà donné des résultats hautement appréciables dans le domaine social. Puis les œuvres diverses développées différemment dans tous les pays font bien large leur part pour améliorer cette situation.

Et pourtant malgré tout cela on sent bien que les moyens purement humains ne sont pas suffisants et qu'il nous faut nécessairement demander l'aide de Dieu; car, sur terre, l'esprit doit dominer la matière, et les forces spirituelles de la nation doivent être développées et primer le développement matériel qui a pourtant lui aussi, une importance réelle.

La nécessité groupement

Tout être humain conscient de sa dignité, et qui a tant soit peu de sens social, sait qu'il doit faire sa part pour améliorer la vie; mais il sent en même temps son impuissance comme unité. De là est née, avec les développements modernes, la nécessité du groupement. Dans le monde entier tous ceux qui partagent la même manière de voir se réunissent pour une action commune.

Les pasteurs religieux ont hautement fait entendre leurs voix pour demander aux hommes plus de justice et plus de charité, mais leurs voix sont trop souvent couvertes par les discussions strictement économiques.

Dans le monde catholique, les Papes Léon XIII, Pie X, Benoît XV, Pie XI ont déjà fait entendre à l'univers, par leurs encycliques, qu'elle est la doctrine de cette Eglise sur la morale familiale et sociale, et combien des principes de sticte justice doivent être à la base du domaine économique. Pour arriver à ceci, il faut créer chez les peuples un sens social très développé et bien équilibré.

Devant les développements modernes Pie XI a jugé devoir demandé aux catholiques du monde entier, de se réunir en quatre grands groupements: hommes, femmes, jeunes gens, jeunes filles; ce qui facilitera pour chacun, une action directe dans son propre milieu: ces groupements organisés s'appellent "Action Catholique". Ils sont d'abord locaux, puis nationaux et internationaux.

Son Eminence le Cardinal Villeneuve a décidé d'établir l'Action Catholique dans son diocèse de Québec. Cette Action Catholique est l'aide que les laïques catholiques donneront à leur clergé, dans une action commune, pour favoriser l'établissement du règne du Christ sur terre, ce qui provoquera un relèvement des conditions générales. Quand la majorité des humains auront un sens social plus développé, nécessairement, l'égoïsme et l'individualisme

cèderont le pas à la générosité et à un sain développement de la personnalité. Les conditions modernes demandent une action nouvelle adaptée aux temps où nous vivons.

Le domaine social dans lequelle d'aujourd'hui

Dans le diocèse de Québec, les femmes sont appelées à faire leur part dans le domaine social, en se groupant dans les rangs de l'Action Catholique qui a un comité féminin, mouvement adulte, chargé de tenir les relations entre tous les différents groupements de femmes. Puis la Ligue Catholique Féminine est un organisme général qui réunira entre elles toutes les paroisses du diocèse (250 environ), car le Cardinal demande à Messieurs les Curés de favoriser l'établissement d'une section de la Ligue dans chaque paroisse. Un comité diocésain réunit une représentante de chaque unité paroissiale, et un comité exécutif administre les intérêts généraux.

Pour commencer cette propagande nouvelle, l'été dernier, le Comité d'Action Catholique a communiqué avec tous les vicaires forains pour leur demander de convoquer une assemblée féminine où on exposerait ce plan et la nécessité du groupement. Un vicariat forain est la réunion d'une vingtaine de paroisses sous la présidence d'un curé. La Ligue Féminine Catholique a été chargée d'établir les contacts avec ces vicariats, et ce sont ses officières qui ont adressé la parole, généralement dans l'église paroissiale, (d'où on avait momentanément enlevé le Saint Sacrement). Les assemblées ont été très nombreuses, un intérêt soutenu a marqué chaque réunion, et malgré l'étonnement que pouvait causer la nouveauté du procédé, beaucoup de femmes ont saisi l'opportunité de ce large développement social.

Durant le mois de février, il a été inauguré, à Québec, une Ecole d'Action Catholique. Demande a été faite à un certain nombre de Curés d'envoyer quelques dames et jeunes filles pour avoir un aperçu général de certaines questions nécessaires à être envisagées dès le début d'une telle organisation. Les cours ont duré douze jours; chaque jour, il y eut trois cours d'une demi-heure suivis d'un échange de vue, donnés par divers professeurs religieux et laïques (hommes et femmes). L'assistance s'est maintenue régulièrement (212 inscriptions); on a montré un tel enthousiasme que ceci assure du premier coup la permanence de cette école.

Le programme de la Ligue Catholique Féminine, en est un de formation, d'assistance et d'action. Son but est de favoriser une étude plus sérieuse et plus profonde de Dieu, de favoriser un sain développement de la famille, d'élever la moralité des moeurs, d'améliorer la condition sociale et civique de la femme dans tous

les domaines, etc. Cette organisation nouvelle respecte l'autonomie des groupes déjà existants et demande leur collaboration dans une action commune générale.

Quand les femmes, en grand nombre, seront impressionnées de leur responsabilité devant l'ordre social, elles contribueront, pour une part substantielle à son amélioration. Les femmes sont la moitié de l'humanité et elles ont directement en mains l'éducation de leurs enfants.

Cessons de nous désoler de ce que le monde présente tant d'anomalies: les plaintes ne relèvent rien. Un véritable chrétien dont la vie présente un reflet de son idéal religieux sera toujours un actif social, et le Christ a promis "paix sur terre aux hommes de bonne volonté".

WITH THE KINDERGARTNERS

A MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT

To the National Federation of Kindergarten, Nursery School,
and Kindergarten-Primary Teachers.

Salutations and Greetings:

For three years our Federation has brought us into a very happy affiliation with the Canadian Welfare Council. They have brought to our Convention some of their views and attitudes toward child life; its health, protection and care throughout the Dominion, and through this journal we have been privileged to read about and form sincere respect for their work.

As we meet them we are deeply struck by the fact that their work is founded upon the same base as is our own, viz., a complete understanding of child psychology, and a desire to lead him to a full realization of his own possibilities.

Understanding of the work of their many branches cannot but be of use to us as we seek to understand the child's life and background, and we are happy to find that we have a common ideal.

This year our Standing Committee covers several centres, with its Executive centre in Hamilton, and Hamilton is to be the stage setting for our Fall Annual, probably in October, and we need your assistance.

You who read this have already *invested* your "One Dollar" (not spent) membership and affiliation fee, and we would like to add you to our membership drive. Perhaps you could show *One* Friend, be she teacher or lover of small children, how she could benefit from this Federation.

Our First Chairman, Miss Dorrien of Toronto, and her Committee, had a very broad vision at its inception, Miss Brenton of London and her workers certainly clarified it, and we in Hamilton hope to take the next step worthily.

A larger membership means a richer treasury, which would certainly return you a high interest rate at our Autumn meeting.

Our best wishes for the current year. May it be busy and satisfying.

Cordially yours,

ALMA F. ROBB,
Chairman for 1937.

THE KINDERGARTEN CENTENNIAL, 1837-1937

Kindergartens all over the world are celebrating this year, 1937, the hundredth anniversary of the founding of the first Kindergarten, in 1837, by Friedrich Froebel, who was born April 21, 1782, at Thuringia, Germany.

Few of his countrymen have made a greater contribution to the welfare of their race, and it is only fitting at this time to pay tribute to the memory of a great educationist, who has changed the whole atmosphere of the school-room, and focused the attention of the teacher on the importance of the child's own activities.

One might ask—What place has the Kindergarten in Modern Education? Has this somewhat elaborate system of education for the young child of a hundred years ago, anything of real value for the child of to-day?

Why has this Kindergarten system become a vital and necessary step in the ladder of the progressive development of a child's life? Why has it not been relegated to the background with the hoop skirt and horse-hair sofa? With little regret the hoop skirt has gone, but even to-day we may find the old sofa useful, and we may even admire its beauty of design, and decide that after all it needs but a new cover.

In the choice of the name "Kindergarten", Froebel was truly inspired. The Child's Garden suggests at once a happy place where the child, like a flower, must be allowed to develop under the right direction, environment and care. The modern child, after all, differs from the child of Froebel's day only in his interests and experiences. Fundamentally he has not changed. The Kindergarten meets the needs of to-day's child because it was originally based on sound principles of learning, as workable now as then. By constant observation of many children, Froebel in his day discovered their native interests and instincts, also their peculiar needs. After a life-time of devoted research he bequeathed to future generations of children a plan involving work and play suitable to the child's needs.

The need or urge for expression he answered by songs and games.

The need for impression, the basis of acquiring knowledge, by story and picture. His need for beauty, by nature study, colour and pleasant surroundings; his urge for social activities by bringing him into the group of his playmates. He stressed the importance of play in the child's life as a means of physical growth, co-operation and happy association with his companions. The need of discipline is answered by obedience to the rules of the game, a sense of fair play, and the joy of doing something well.

Fortunately for the welfare of the modern child, the many intelligent and devoted students of Froebel have succeeded in making successful adjustments necessary to keep this valuable system of education up-to-date. We are reminded of such famous people as Patty Hill, Susan Blow, Jessie Gaynor, Mary Adair, Dorothy Canfield and Elizabeth Harrison. These, with hosts of other teachers, whose names will never be known have all contributed their part and made the Kindergarten a vital part of the educational system of our public schools to-day.

The spirit of a great man lives forever in those who love and study little children, and try to guide them through their inherent instinct for play, to a real desire for knowledge and right living.

ALMA HARVEY,
Hamilton, Ontario.

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AN APPEAL TO FELLOW-MEMBERS
including Secretaries of Local Associations.

Will you help your Federation, through the medium of these pages, by forwarding any information of interest to all, or any contribution you may have to offer in original songs, games or stories; also any amusing incidents in connection with your work to J. Lauretta Barge, 89 Wentworth St. South, Hamilton, Ontario.

SMILES

Herbert— "My Daddy's going to take me out when I get home to buy Mother's birthday present."

Kindergartner—"What are you going to buy for Mother?"

Herbert—"A Toaster. We've needed one ever since we got married."

* * *

(During a number play, in which numbers were written on the floor, and one child standing beside each number).

Teacher—(to child standing beside number one): "What is your number?"

Child—"One."

Teacher—(to child standing beside number two): "What is your number?"

Child—"Two."

Teacher—(to child standing beside number three): "What is your number?"

Child—"52 Main Street."



- No. 62. **The Visiting Housekeeper.**
 No. 64. **The Central Bureau in the Catholic Welfare Programme.**
 No. 66. **The Day Nursery in the Programme of Child Care.**
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 No. 79. **Need Our Mothers Die?—Part I.**
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 No. 82. **Common Sense in a Chaotic World. (Outline of Services of Canadian Welfare Council).** 1936.
 No. 83. **Family Relief in Canada and the United States.**
 No. 84. **Toward National Well-being.**
 No. 85. **Society Work at the League of Nations.**
 No. 86. **Mother's Allowances.**
 No. 87. **Britain's Need Aid and Ours.**
 No. 88. **Social Work and People's Health.**
 No. 89. **Why we should Eat Vegetables.**
 No. 90. **Why we should Eat Fruit.**

Supplement to "Child and Family Welfare":

Canadian Cavalcade 1920-1935. (15c).
 Problems in The Social Administration of General and Unemployment Relief, Canada 1935.

Reprints

- (1) Some Considerations re Health Insurance.
 (2) Some Considerations re Unemployment Insurance.
 (3) Administration of Clothing Relief.
 (4) Activities of the Department of Public Welfare, Toronto.
 (5) Child Protection in England and Wales.
 (6) The Essentials of a Relief Programme for Canada.
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 (9) The Unattached Women—Canada.
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 (11) What is Wrong with our Christmas Giving?
 (12) Britain's Social Services.
 (13) The Relief of Unemployment.
 (14) An Address by Excellence the Governor General to the Ottawa Welfare Bureau.
 (15) Social Work and the Community.
 (16) Health Pitfalls and Tragedies of the Pre-school Child.
 (17) Foster Family Care for Children.
 (18) 'No Man's' Land—Justice From the World.
 (19) Child Care and Protection in the Community.
 (20) The Contribution of Social Work to the Life of To-day.
 (21) Organizing Resources for Community Needs.
 (22) What a Health Service can Mean to a Community.
 (23) The Relief Outlook in Canada—Winter 1936-1937.
 (24) Hospital Social Service.
 (25) The Social Service Exchange.

Recent Statements on Relief Trends in Canada:

- T. A. Pub'n. No. 1. **Outlook—December 1935.**
 T. A. Pub'n. No. 2. **A National Relief Plan, An Urgent Need—February, 1936.**
 T. A. Pub'n. No. 3. **Relief Outlook—Winter 1935-1936—December, 1935.**
 L.T.A. Pub'n. No. 1-12. **Recreation Bulletins dealing with various phases of recreation are available on request.**
 L.T.A. Pub'n. No. 13. **Community Gardens.**

Charts—(Wall Size)—

- No. 1. 7, 10, 14. **Infant Mortality Rates in Sixty Canadian cities (Statistics 1924, 1925, 1926, 1928).**
 Nos. 9, 12, 16. **Is your District Safe for Babies? (Rural Infant Mortality Rates, 1925, 1926, 1928).**
 Nos. 17A-B-C. **Does Your City Lose Its Babies? Statistical Report of Infant Mortality in Cities of Canada. (Five Year comparison, 1926-30).** 1932.
 Nos. 2, 8, 11, 15. **Why Our Children Die. (Statistics, 1926, 1928, 1927, 1928).**
 No. 4. **Hillarity Breeds Illiteracy. 1921 Census.**
 No. 5. **The Vicious Tradition (Illiteracy in Cities—1921 Census).**
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Diet Folder—Series 1, 2, 3, 4, 5—dealing with the child's diet from birth to school age. (At cost).

Health Record Forms—For the use of physicians, clinics, conferences, etc. (At cost).

Record Forms—(1) Child's History. (2) Family History. For the use of children's agencies, institutions, etc. (At cost). (3) Physical Record Forms for Institutions. (At cost).

Annually—Proceedings and Papers of the Annual Meeting and Conference.

Official Organ—"Child and Family Welfare," issued bi-monthly. (\$1.00 per year).

*** Posters—Out of Print.**

Canadian Welfare Council

Founded in Ottawa, in 1930, as the result of a National Congress of Child Welfare Workers, convened by the Child Welfare Division, Federal Department of Health.
COUNCIL HOUSE, 248 COOPER ST., OTTAWA, CANADA.

OBJECT.

- (1) To create throughout the Dominion of Canada an informed public opinion on problems in the field of social welfare.
- (2) To assist in the promotion of standards and services which are based on scientific principles and which have been proved effective in practical experience.

METHODS.

- (1) The preparation and publication of literature, arrangement of lectures, addresses, radio and film material, etc., and general educational propaganda in social welfare.
- (2) Conferences. (3) Field Studies and Surveys. (4) Research.

MEMBERSHIP.

The membership shall be of two groups, organization and individual.

(1) Organization membership shall be open to any organization, institution or group having the progress of Canadian Social Welfare wholly or in part included in their program, articles of incorporation, or other statement of incorporation.

(2) Individual membership shall be open to any individual interested in or engaged in Welfare work, upon payment of the fee, whether that individual is in work, under any government in Canada or not.

1. National Organizations.....	Annual Fee, \$5.00—Representatives: A.
2. Provincial Organizations.....	Annual Fee, \$3.00—Representatives: B.
3. Municipal Organizations.....	Annual Fee, \$2.00—Representatives: C.
4. Individual Members.....	Annual Fee, \$1.00—Representatives: D.

In electing the Governing Board and the Executive, all members will be grouped according to their organizations by the Treasurer.

Every member will receive a copy of the proceedings of the Annual Conference and such other publications as may be published from time to time.

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